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# MANUAL

OF

# MODERN

# GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

BY

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"MANUAL OF ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY," ETC.

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# PREFACE.

The present volume completes the series of Professor Pütz's Manuals of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern Geography and History. Its adaptation to the wants of the student will be found to be no less complete than was to be expected from the former Parts, which have been highly approved by the public, and have been translated into several languages besides the English. The difficulty of compressing within the limits of a single volume the vast amount of historical material furnished by the progress of modern states and nations in power, wealth, science, and literature, will be evident to all on reflection; and they will find occasion to admire the skill and perspicacity of the Author of this Manual, not only in the arrangement, but also in the facts and statements which he has adopted.

In the American edition several improvements have been made; the sections relating to America and the United States have been almost entirely re-written, and materially enlarged and improved, as seemed on every account necessary and proper in a work intended for general use in this country; on several occasions it has been

thought advisable to make certain verbal corrections and emendations; the facts and dates have been verified, and a number of explanatory notes have been introduced. It is hoped that the improvements alluded to will be found to add to the value of the present Manual.

J. A. S.

Burlington College, Jan. 2, 1851.

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# HANDBOOK

OF

# GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

## PART III.—MODERN HISTORY.[1]

## INTRODUCTION.

(1.) The latter part of the fifteenth and commencement of the sixteenth century, witnessed the occurrence of events which produced a change, and in some instances a complete revolution, in the relations of European society. Of these events the most remarkable were,

1. The conquest of the Byzantine empire by the Turks, under Mohammed II. A. D. 1453.

2. The application of gunpowder to purposes of war, and the establishment of standing armies.

(2.) The use of firearms seems to have been learnt from the Spanish Moors, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, by the inhabitants of Flanders, who taught it to the English during the war in which the two nations

[1] The History of the Middle Ages and Modern History cannot be accurately divided. It is usual to consider the latter as commencing from the last invasion of the barbarians (the Ottoman Turks), and the fall of Constantinople, A. D. 1458. On the whole this division may be most conveniently adopted.—S.

were engaged together against France; but we hear nothing of an organized system until the reigns of Louis XI. of France and Maximilian I. of Germany. As this change in the mode of warfare made the event of a battle less dependent on acts of personal bravery, and diminished the superiority of cavalry over infantry, it became necessary to teach large bodies of men such manœuvres as would render their combined movements most effective, and give them the full advantage of the newly-invented weapon. Hence the establishment of standing armies, especially in France, under Charles VII.

3. The invention of printing (about A. D. 1440).

4. The revival of the arts (especially painting) and sciences, comprehending *philology*, a taste for which was introduced into Italy by the Greek exiles, who sought an asylum in thot country after the capture of Byzantium by the Turks; and *natural philosophy*, which began again to be cultivated in Western Europe.

5. The discovery of the New World, and of a passage by sea to the East Indies, which occasioned the general substitution of maritime for overland trade.

6. The Reformation, the effects of which were experienced in almost every country of Europe.

7. The gradual development of a system of political equipoise (or balance of power).

## First Period.

From the discovery of America to the peace of Westphalia. 1492—1648.

### § 1. *Discoveries, Conquests, and Colonies of the Europeans in other Quarters of the Globe.*

(3.) In the hope of putting an end to the monopoly of the East Indian trade enjoyed by the free states of

Italy, especially by the Venetians, voyages of discovery were undertaken by the Spaniards and Portuguese, in opposite directions, the former steering westward and the latter eastward, for the purpose of discovering a passage by sea to the East Indies.

(4.) 1. Discoveries and conquests of the *Spaniards.*

(5.) *a.* Christopher Columbus (or Colombo), a native of Genoa, having been unsuccessful in his applications to the Portuguese government and the authorities of his own city, submitted to the court of Spain a plan for the discovery of a western passage to India, and after eighteen years of fruitless solicitation, obtained at last from Isabella, Queen of Castille, an assurance of support, and the promise of a reward if he succeeded in his undertaking (comp. § 4). On the 3d of August, 1492, Columbus sailed with three caravels or ships from Palos, a small seaport of Andalusia, landed October 12th (October 21st, new style) on the island of Guanahani, which he named S. Salvador, and discovered the islands of Cuba and Hayti. In his second voyage (1493–96) he discovered several of the smaller Antilles and Jamaica; and in the third (1498—1500) Trinidad, and the continent at the mouth of the Orinoco: but soon afterwards he was recalled, and conveyed back to Spain in chains by Don Francisco de Bobadilla, a Spanish knight, who had been sent out in pursuit of him. After his liberation he undertook a fourth voyage (1502—1504), in which he made an unsuccessful attempt to discover a passage into the South Sea, and died at Valladolid, of disappointment and mortification, May 20th, 1506. The chains which he had worn on his return from his third voyage were buried with him. The recently-discovered continent received the name of America from Amerigo Vespucci († 1512), a Florentine, who accompanied Columbus on his third voyage, and published a description of the new world. Florida was soon afterwards discovered by the Spaniards (1512).

(6.) *b.* In the year 1519, Hernando (or Ferdinand) Cortez landed from Cuba on the coast of Mexico, advanced without opposition to the capital, and took the king, Montezuma, prisoner: but the cruelty of the Spaniards soon

rendered them so odious to the inhabitants, that Cortez was obliged to evacuate the city. Having a second time (1521) made himself master of it, he was nominated by Charles V. governor of Mexico, which they now called New Spain. A few years later, Cortez appeared before the king for the purpose of defending himself against the accusations of his enemies, but notwithstanding his honorable reception at court, the only office of trust which he was permitted to retain, was the command of the army in the new colony. After discovering the peninsula of California (1536), he returned to Spain, where he died of a broken heart (at Seville, in 1547).

(7.) *c.* Meanwhile Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese officer in the Spanish service, had discovered (1520) a passage, through the narrow channel called from him the Strait of Magellan, into the South Sea, to which he gave the name of the Pacific Ocean. The crew of his ship, after the assassination of their commander on one of the Philippine islands, completed the *first circumnavigation of the globe* (1522).

(8.) *d.* Francis Pizarro (with Almagro and Luque) discovered and conquered the rich country of Peru, which fell into his hands the more easily, in consequence of a disputed succession between two brothers (Huaskar and Atahualpa). The foundation of a new capital, named Lima, was laid by the conqueror. Almagro (who had undertaken the conquest of Chili) having quarrelled with Pizarro respecting the possession of Cuzco, the ancient capital, was executed at Lima; and soon afterwards Pizarro himself fell a victim to a conspiracy of the friends of Almagro, to whom he had refused a share of the conquered territory.

(9.) *e.* Conquest of Terra Firma and New Granada.

The government of these provinces was intrusted to "a Council of the Indies," which sat at Madrid, and to two, and at a later period three, viceroys (of Mexico, Peru, and New Granada). Civilization was promoted, *a.* By building cities, at first on the coast, and subsequently in the interior. *b.* By the formation of missions, i. e. communities of converted Indians, under the superintendence of a priest. The grand obstacles to their success were the stupidity of the Indians and their hatred of the Euro-

peans. *c.* By the establishment of convents, bishoprics, and universities (at Mexico and Lima). The advantage derived from these settlements was limited at first to the acquisition of the precious metals by means of numerous mining establishments, which were worked (through the influence of the Dominican monk, Las Casas, the great protector of the aborigines) by negro slaves purchased in Africa. The colonists were required to transmit the produce of these mines exclusively to Spain, and to import articles of European merchandise from the port of Seville alone. Disputes with Portugal were avoided by the establishment (by Popes Sixtus IV. and Alexander VI.) of a boundary line drawn, in the first instance, through the 20th, and subsequently through the 70th degree of West longitude, reckoned from the island of Ferro.

(10.) 2. Discoveries and settlements of the *Portuguese.* After the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope by Bartholomew Diaz, fresh attempts were made by King Emanuel the Great to find a passage by sea to the East Indies. In the year 1498, this passage was discovered by Vasco de Gama, who landed at Calicut, on the coast of Malabar.

(11.) The Portuguese supremacy was maintained in the East Indies (in spite of the Arabians, who were supported by the Venetians) by the erection of a chain of fortresses and factories extending from the eastern coast of Africa to the peninsula of Malacca and the Moluccas. These establishments (of which Goa was the central point) were chiefly planned by the viceroys Francisco de Almeida (1505–1509) and Alfonso Albuquerque (1509–1515).

(12.) Brazil, which had been discovered by Cabral on his voyage to the East Indies, was not colonized until the year 1550. Advantages still more important were secured to the Portuguese by commercial treaties with China and (since the mission of Francis Xavier) with Japan.

(13.) 3. Settlements and conquests of the *Dutch companies.* The Spaniards, who had become masters of the Portuguese Netherlands by the conquest of Portugal in 1580, having deprived the rebellious Dutch of the East Indian trade, which they had hitherto carried on from the port of Lisbon, the latter undertook an expedition to India on their own account, drove the Portuguese from the

Indian seas (from 1663), and left them only an insignificant remnant of their former power. *An East India company*, incorporated, with the sanction of the States General, in 1602, enjoyed by the terms of its charter a monopoly of the Dutch trade beyond the Cape and the Straits of Magellan, and was invested with sovereign authority over all future settlements in India. These settlements were, for the most part, on the Moluccas, or Spice Islands, and the isles of Sunda.[2] The seat of government and central emporium of Indian and European commerce was the city of Batavia, which had been recently built on the island of Java. The *West Indian* trade was also in the hands of a company (1621), which made, but was unable to retain, some important conquests in Brazil.

(14.) 4. The discovery of a north-western passage to India was attempted by Sir Francis Drake in his voyage round the world (1577–80), and that of a north-eastern by Hudson, but in both cases without success. During the whole of this period the possessions of the *English East India Company* (chartered by Queen Elizabeth in 1600) consisted merely of a few factories in India, the island of St. Helena, and some agricultural establishments in North America and the West Indies.[3]

(15.) 5. The French began to form settlements in several of the West India islands.

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[2] Sumatra, Java, &c.

[3] During this period (1492—1648) various voyages, discoveries, and settlements were made in America. John and Sebastian Cabot first reached the continent on the coast of Labrador (1497); they sailed under the patronage of Henry VII. of England. In 1513 Balboa first saw the Pacific Ocean; De Ayllon visited Carolina in 1520. Verrazani coasted along New Jersey and New-York in 1524; Cartier entered the St. Lawrence in 1535; and De Soto crossed the Mississippi in 1540. Sir Walter Raleigh made vigorous efforts towards colonization in Carolina, 1584—1590. James I., in 1606, chartered the Plymouth and London Companies to operate in Virginia: Jamestown was the first English settlement in America (St. Augustine, in Florida, was founded by the Spaniards in 1565 and is the oldest town in the United States). Henry Hudson, in 1609, discovered the Hudson river, while in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, and the island of Manhattan (New-York) was occupied by the Dutch for purposes of trade, in 1613. On the 21st of December, 1620, the "pilgrim fathers" landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Boston was founded in 1630.—S.

## § 2. *The Reformation.*

(16.) The rapid progress of the Reformation in the sixteenth century must be attributed mainly to the corruption of the Church, both in discipline and doctrine, and the general conviction that the time was come for the eradication of those abuses by which the Christian community was daily scandalized.

(17.) Ever since the thirteenth century, and especially since the removal of the papal residence to Avignon, the character of the heads of the Romish Church had been losing ground in public estimation, through their extortionate practices, the collation of ignorant and vicious men to important benefices, the exercise of ecclesiastical authority for secular objects, and, more than all, the personal unworthiness of some of the popes themselves (Alexander VI. and Julius II.). All these abuses had produced, especially in Germany, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, a feeling of bitter hostility to the papal see. To these causes we may add the ignorance and worldliness of most of the bishops, as well as of the inferior clergy, the decline of monastic discipline, and corrupt practices of various sorts.

(18) 1. In Germany. The immediate cause of the German Reformation was the scandalous trade in indulgences carried on by one John Tetzel, a Dominican monk, in the neighbourhood of Wittenberg. This system, which had been sanctioned by Pope Leo X. for the purpose of raising funds for the erection of St. Peter's church at Rome, was vehemently opposed by Martin Luther (born in Eisleben in 1483), an Augustin monk, and professor at the recently-established university of Wittenberg, who affixed to the door of the principal church in that city (on the 31st October, 1517) a paper containing ninety-five theses (principally against the abuse of indulgences), and pledged himself to defend his propositions against all opponents. Soon afterwards he published several German treatises, in which he maintained the doctrine of Justification by Faith only. In consequence of these proceedings the Pope summoned Luther

to appear before him at Rome within sixty days, and give an account of his doctrine; but, at the request of the Elector Frederick the Wise, of Saxony, and the University of Wittenberg, permission was granted to the Reformer to discuss the question with the Pope's plenipotentiary, Cardinal Cajetan, before the diet which was then assembled at Augsburg (1588). At this conference the Cardinal demanded unconditional submission, which Luther refused; and even the papal chamberlain, Charles von Miltitz, who was afterwards appointed to act as the Pope's representative, could only obtain from him a conditional promise, that he would abstain from controversial writing if his opponents would do the same. A disputation which Dr. Eck, professor of theology at Ingolstadt, held with Luther and his colleague, Carlstadt, at Leipzig, having produced no result except the confirmation of the Reformer in his own opinions, a bull was published, condemning as heretical forty-one propositions extracted from the writings[4] of Luther, and threatening him with excommunication unless he retracted them within sixty days. This bull, with the books of canon law and some of Eck's writings, was publicly burnt by Luther before the Elster gate of Wittenberg, on the 10th December, 1520. Hereupon sentence of excommunication was passed on Luther and his followers. In the year 1521, he appeared before the first diet of Charles V., assembled at Worms, and having refused either to retract his assertions or submit to the decision of a general council, was placed under the bann of the empire: but this sentence, called the "Edict of Worms," was not published until his safe arrival at the Wartburg, near Eisenach, where he translated the Bible into German.

[4] In a treatise published in 1520, with the title, "A letter to his Imperial Majesty and the Christian nobility of the German nation, touching the improvement of the Christian estate," Luther repudiates both the ecclesiastical and secular authority of the pope, and condemns monastic vows, celibacy, and the whole of the canon law. In a second publication he combats the doctrine of the "Sacrifice of the Mass;" and in the third, intituled "Concerning the Babylonish captivity," he rejects four of the five Romish sacraments, viz. confirmation, orders, matrimony, and extreme unction, retaining only penance.

(19.) The reformed doctrines found an able defender in Philip Melancthon[5] (in his Loci Communes Rerum Theolog.), and stout opponents in Henry VIII., King of England, and Erasmus of Rotterdam, and were already gaining a firm footing in Hesse and other places, particularly in Prussia, where the Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, a personal friend of Luther's, embraced the reformed religion, and at the same time married a daughter of Frederick, King of Denmark, and by the convention of Cracow, in 1525, converted his territory, with the consent of the crown of Poland, into a *temporal duchy*. Luther himself quitted the cloister, and married a nun named Catherine of Bora. Meanwhile the oppressive cruelty of the nobles, and the misinterpretation of Luther's doctrines concerning Christian liberty, occasioned the Peasants' War, which broke out in Swabia, in 1525, and spread rapid destruction over the Rhineland and Franconia, as far as Saxony and Thuringia. A few of the nobles were compelled to join the insurgent peasants (i. e. Götz von Berlichingen[6]), but the undisciplined masses were soon scattered in all directions, and a subsequent attempt of Thomas Münzer, the Anabaptist, was rendered equally abortive by the victory of Frankenhausen.

(20.) In their so-called twelve articles, the peasants demanded freedom of hunting, fishing, and woodcutting, abolition of serfdom, and the abrogation of various penal ordinances. To these demands were added others of a more visionary character. They would no longer be vassals, because Christ had redeemed them with his blood. They refused to pay tithes, except of wheat, for this was the only tithe recognized in the Old Testament. They chose to elect their own preachers, that they might be instructed in the true faith.

(21.) At the diet assembled at Spires, in 1529, by Charles V., for the purpose of discussing church affairs, as well as of obtaining means for carrying on a war against the Turks, it was resolved, that those communities which

[5] A Greek translation of his German name Schwarzerd, "Black earth."

[6] "The knight with the iron hand," the hero of one of Goethe's dramas.

had hitherto followed the edict of Worms, should still abide by it, but that wherever the new doctrines had been embraced, the authorities should be required to abstain from the introduction of further novelties until the sitting of the next general council, and in nowise be permitted to molest or obstruct the professors of the ancient faith. Against this prohibition the Reformers entered a formal ptotest, from which, at a later period, they obtained the name of Protestants.

(22.) In the hope of bringing about a reconciliation between the two parties, the Emperor, in the year 1530, assembled a diet at Augsburg, where the reformers handed in a confession of faith drawn up by Melancthon, and signed by the Protestant princes and cities. This document, which contained twenty-eight articles, was afterwards named "the Confession of Augsburg." As all attempts to effect a reconciliation were fruitless, an imperial edict was issued, commanding the withdrawal of all novelties, and an unconditional return to the doctrines and practices of the Romish Church, until a general diet of the empire could be assembled. A league was then formed at Schmalkalde (1531), to which all the Protestant princes and imperial cities were parties, each pledging himself to protect his brethren, and to refuse all aid to the Emperor against the Turks, as long as the imperial edict remained in force. This determined resistance compelled the Emperor to withdraw his edict, and to conclude the so-called religious peace at Nürnberg (1532), by the terms of which a general truce was established until the next council or diet, it being distinctly understood, that in the mean time no party should oppress or disquiet another on the ground of his religious belief. The calm, however, was soon disturbed by the revival of the Anabaptist heresy. This sect, which had appeared before the commencement of the Reformation, not only taught the necessity of a second baptism in the case of adults, but threatened to shake society to its foundation by its wild doctrines respecting the reign of the saints upon earth.[7] Both Romanists

[7] It was against these heretics that the Church of England maintained, in her thirty-eighth article, that "the riches and goods

and Protestants had then united to crush the promulgators of these dangerous theories, and the sect seemed to have expired with the death of its apostle Thomas Münzer, when it suddenly reappeared in Münster.

(23.) A crazy enthusiast, named Jan Matthys, a baker of Harlem, accompanied by one Jan Bockelson (originally a tailor at Leyden, and afterwards an innkeeper and poet), came to Münster (1534), where the Protestants had, a short time before, obtained the upper hand, and having collected a prodigious crowd of followers, and deposed the magistrates, proceeded to establish themselves as irresponsible rulers of the city, which they soon filled with violence and bloodshed. Matthys having fallen in a desperate sally against the army of the Bishop, which closely blockaded the city, his lieutenant, Bockelson, was proclaimed king of the New Zion. His first act was to send apostles to different countries, and in addition to the original Anabaptist doctrine of community of goods, to permit a plurality of wives. At length the Bishop, supported by several temporal princes, stormed the city, the inhabitants of which were suffering grievously from want of provisions, put Bockelson and his coadjutors, Knipperdolling and Heftig, to death by the most cruel tortures, and re-established the Roman Catholic religion. After several fruitless conferences between the representatives of the two parties, the Council of Trent was at last opened in the year 1545, a short time before the death of Martin Luther († 1546). But the Protestants, acting under the advice of Luther, refused to appear before an assembly the majority of which they knew to be unfavorable to their doctrines, and demanded that a council of the German nation should be convened. All hope of accommodation being now at an end, the Emperor threatened the Protestants with war, a menace which occasioned the withdrawal of several of their leaders from the Schmalkaldian league; but their great supporters, the Elector of Saxony (John Frederick) and the Landgrave,

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of Christians are not common, as certain Anabaptists do falsely boast. The Book of Common Prayer of the American Episcopal Church contains the same article; and all the orthodox denominations agree in sentiment and practice on this point.—S.

Philip of Hesse, made every preparation for a determined resistance, and were in consequence placed under the bann of the empire.

(24.) The Schmalkaldian war, as it is called, commenced in 1546. Charles, who was unprepared for so sudden a declaration of hostilities, might have been easily surprised; but the delay occasioned by the indecision of the allies and their want of unanimity, enabled him to assemble troops from Italy, Hungary, and the Netherlands, and to defeat the Schmalkaldian confederates in Southern Germany, whilst at the same time Duke Maurice of Saxony (who, although a Protestant, had taken part with the Emperor) invaded the territories of the Elector of Saxony.

(25.) The Elector, it is true, re-conquered his possessions, but soon afterwards he was defeated by the Emperor near Mühlberg (24th April, 1547), taken prisoner, and compelled to abdicate in favor of Duke Maurice. The electoral dignity was thus transferred for ever from the Ernestine to the Albertine line.[8] The Landgrave of Hesse threw himself at the Emperor's feet, and recovered his lands, but was sompelled, like the Elector, to follow the imperial court as a prisoner. The council of Trent having adjourned to Bologna in consequence of a pestilence which had broken out at the former city, a decree was issued by the Emperor (called the *Interim*), professing to regulate the affairs of the Church until the reassembling of the council at Trent. But this arrangement pleased neither the Pope nor the Protestants, the former considering it an unwarrantable interference on the part of a layman in matters purely spiritual; the latter believing it to be merely an attempt to re-establish Romanism. The city of Magdeburg, which had distin-

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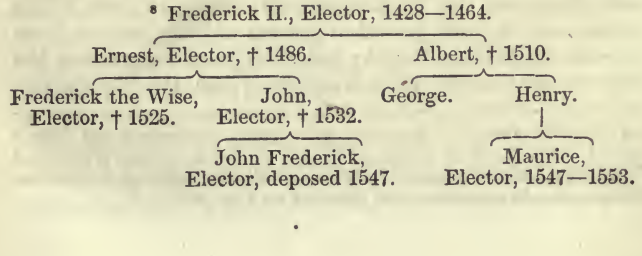
[8] Frederick II., Elector, 1428—1464.



guished itself by its determined opposition to the Emperor's decree, was taken by Maurice, after a siege of thirteen months, and compelled to accept the "interim." A change in the aspect of affairs was occasioned at this time by the defection of Duke Maurice, who went over to the Protestants, pleading as an excuse for this treacherous course, the refusal of the Emperor to liberate his father-in-law, the Landgrave of Hesse. In conjunction with several German princes, and with Henry II., King of France, who took possession of the imperial cities of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, Maurice declared war against the Emperor, who was then at Innpsruck, and compelled him to fly for safety to Villach in Carinthia. On the 22d August, 1552, a convention was concluded at Passau, on terms sufficiently favorable to the Protestants, who were allowed the free exercise of their religion until the meeting of a general diet. At the same time the Landgrave of Hesse was set at liberty, and the Elector, who had been freed from arrest on the departure of the Emperor from Innspruck, was re-instated in his dignities as a prince of the empire, Duke of Saxony, and Landgrave of Thuringia and Meissen. An attempt of the Emperor to retake Metz was unsuccessful. The Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, who refused to recognize the convention of Passau, was defeated at Sievershausen, in 1553, by Maurice, who was himself mortally wounded in the battle. The promised diet was at length opened at Augsburg, in 1555, by the Roman King Ferdinand, brother of Charles V. The free exercise of their religion was secured alike to Romanists and Protestants by a convention termed the Religious Peace of Augsburg, the only subject of dispute being a demand of the Romanists, that a clause should be inserted (*reservatum ecclesiasticum*), depriving of their temporal rank and privileges all ecclesiastical dignitaries who should embrace the Protestant faith.

(26.) The council of Trent (1545—1563). Since the year 1536, several unsuccessful attempts had been made by the Popes to convene a general council for the solemn discussion of the religious questions which agitated Europe. At length, on the 13th December,

1545, the council of Trent opened its session, which continued, with two interruptions, for eighteen years. A reconciliation between the Protestants and the Church of Rome was now hopeless; the council therefore directed its chief attention to the removal of abuses, and the establishment of a definite and unmistakeable rule of faith.

(27.) 2. In the Scandinavian kingdoms Lutheranism was adopted as the state religion by the Kings of Norway, Denmark, and Sweden; whose treasuries were replenished by the confiscation of Church property. The profligacy and ignorance of the clergy, in those remote countries, had long since rendered the people discontented with the ancient clergy.

(28.) 3. In Switzerland, Ulric Zwingli (born in 1484, at Wildhaus, in the county of Toggenburg), preacher at Einsiedeln and subsequently at Zürich, opposed the sale of indulgences by Bernardin Sampson; and soon afterwards attacked the celibacy of the clergy, the mass, and the use of images in churches. Zwingli's reformation was of a more sweeping character than that of Luther, who was willing to retain all practices not expressly forbidden by Holy Scripture, whilst the Swiss reformer endeavored to restore the Church to a condition (as he believed) of primitive simplicity, by rejecting every thing for which he was unable to find scriptural authority. But the grand subject of dispute between the two reformers, was the doctrine of Christ's presence in the Eucharist; Luther maintaining *the real* [*consubstantiated*] *presence of* our Blessed Lord in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper; and Zwingli, on the contrary, contending that the bread and wine were merely *signs* or *symbols* of his body and blood. The doctrine of Zwingli was embraced by Zürich, and the northern cantons, but the forest cantons (Schwyz, Uri, Unterwalden, and Lucerne) with Zug, continued firmly attached to the Church of Rome, and offered every opposition in their power to the progress of the Reformation. After several skirmishes between the five Romanist cantons and the Protestants, the inhabitants of Zürich sustained a defeat in 1531, near Cappel, where Zwingli himself was left dead on the field of battle. The immediate result of this victory was the extermination of Protestantism in many dis-

tricts where it had begun to take root. The canton of Berne having wrested the Pays de Vaud from the Duke of Savoy, the whole of French Switzerland became Protestant, and the head-quarters of the reformed belief were established at Geneva, by

(29.) John Calvin (Jean Caulvin), born in 1509, at Noyon in Picardy. This Reformer, who had abandoned his profession as a jurist for the study of theology, was driven from France by the persecutions to which the Protestants were exposed in that country, and sought an asylum at Bâsle, in Switzerland, where he published his Christianæ Religionis Institutio, in 1535, and was subsequently appointed preacher and theological professor at Geneva. Here his doctrine was embraced by the citizens, who passed a resolution depriving all recusants of their civil rights. An opposition was organized which drove Calvin from the city, but after a time he returned, and preached, with great zeal, the doctrines which are supposed to distinguish his system from those of Luther and Zwingli (predestination, the *spiritual* refreshment of the believer's soul, by the body and blood of Christ in the Lord's Supper, &c.). The presbyterian form of Church government was also established and introduced into other countries, by means of the disciples whom the fame of Calvin's learning attracted to Geneva from France, Germany, the Netherlands, and England. Calvin died in 1564.

(30.) 4. In other countries. The teaching of Calvin spread from Geneva into France, where the Protestants (termed Huguenots) formed a powerful party in the reigns of Francis II. and Charles IX.

(31.) The Netherlands, which their situation, and extensive commercial relations, rendered peculiarly accessible to the doctrines of the Reformation, were visited by Anabaptists from Germany, and large bodies of Calvinists from France.

(32.) The severe measures adopted by Philip II. for the extermination of Protestantism, occasioned the separation of the seven northern provinces from the Spanish dominions.

(33.) In all these provinces Calvinism became the es-

tablished religion, the Southern Netherlands still adhering to the faith of the Church of Rome.

(34.) In England, *Henry VIII.*, at an earlier period, one of the most determined opponents of Luther's doctrine, quarrelled with the Pope because he refused to sanction his divorce from Queen Catherine, and, breaking off all connection with Rome, proclaimed himself the head of the Anglican Church. This assumption of supremacy was recognized by Parliament and a vast majority of the clergy. The recusants were either delivered over to the executioner, banished to foreign lands, or thrown into prison, where many of them perished miserably. All the English monasteries (500) were suppressed, and their revenues confiscated to the king's use. In most other respects, Henry remained a Romanist. The Reformation in England was principally effected by the labors of the learned Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, during the minority of *Edward VI.* His successor, *Mary*, re-established the connection with Rome, and treated the Protestants with great cruelty. In this reign, Archbishop Cranmer, and several other bishops, were burnt at the stake, for their adherence to the reformed faith. *Elizabeth* renounced the papal domination in England, and adopted such measures as served to establish the Reformation. The constitution of the Church in its government by bishops was retained, but this arrangement was vehemently opposed by an ultra-Calvinistic party, who recognized only Presbyters;—whence they were called *Presbyterians*, in contradistinction to Episcopalians. Another sect, termed *Independents*, sprang up in the reign of Charles I. These schismatics asserted the right of all Christians to interpret Scripture according to their own conscience, without the intervention of confessions of faith.

(35.) In Scotland, the preachers of the new doctrines were successful, in proportion to the corruption of the Church in that country. The most vehement opponent of the Church of Rome was John Knox, a friend of Calvin's.

(36.) All attempts of the English government to convert the Irish to Protestantism were unsuccessful, until

the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., when the confiscation of large Irish estates, and the establishment of English colonies in Ireland, were deemed the most effectual modes of exterminating Romanism; but the natives, in spite of persecution, remained, for the most part, firm in their adherence to the Church of Rome.

(37.) From Germany the Reformation extended into Poland, Livonia, Courland, Hungary, and Transylvania.

## § 3. *Germany under Maximilian I. and Charles V.*, 1493—1556.

### 1. Maximilian I., 1493—1519.

(38.) 1. The constitution. The estates of the realm having demanded, as a condition of their granting a subsidy for the Italian war (against Charles VIII.), that peace and order should be established on a firm footing throughout the empire, Maximilian, at a diet held at Worms in 1495, abolished the Faustrecht[9] (right of the nobles to make war on their own account), and instituted an Imperial Chamber as the supreme court of justice, with authority to publish the bann of the empire against all transgressors of the laws. The president of this court was nominated by the Emperor, but all the other members were elected by the estates. The chamber, instead of migrating with the imperial court, as had formerly been the case, held its sittings in one place—at first at Worms, then at Spires, and lastly at Wetzlar (1689—1806). For the better maintenance of peace, the whole empire was divided (at a diet held at Cologne in 1512) into ten Circles, viz. the Austrian, Bavarian, Swabian, Franconian, Upper Rhenish, Lower (or Electoral) Rhenish, Westphalian, Upper Saxon, Lower Saxon, and Burgundian. In each circle chief officers were appointed for carrying into execution the decrees of the imperial chamber.

Of the ten circles,

(39.) 1. *The Austrian* (the largest of all) comprised

[9] Lit. *Fist*-right, i. e. right of the strong hand.

Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, the Tyrol, and some possessions of the house of Hapsburg on the Upper Rhine, and in Swabia.

(40.) 2. *The Bavarian.* The duchy of Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate, the principality of Neuburg, the archbishopric of Salzburg, and several smaller spiritual and temporal seignories.

(41.) 3. *The Swabian.* The duchy of Würtemberg, the Margravate of Baden, the county of Hohenzollern, the county of Fürstenberg, the bishopric of Augsburg, &c., altogether, 90 spiritual and temporal estates.

(42.) 4. *The Franconian.* The Brandenburg margravates of Culmbach (Baireuth) and Onolzbach (Anspach), the Teutonic Order, which after the secularization of Prussia established itself at Mergentheim as the seat of government, the bishoprics of Bamberg, Würzburg, and Eichstädt, the imperial city of Nürnberg, &c.

(43.) 5. *The Upper Rhenish* circle was intermixed with the Electoral Rhenish. Its two principal portions were Lorraine on the left, and Hesse on the right bank of the Rhine. Since the year 1619, the latter of these portions had comprised only Darmstadt and Cassel, the two other lines of Marburg and Rheinfels having become extinct, and their territories having been annexed to Cassel.

(44.) 6. *The Electoral or Lower Rhenish* comprehended the three spiritual electorates of Mainz (Mayence), Trier (Trèves), and Köln (Cologne), with a portion of the territories of the Elector Palatine, which were divided into four circles.

(45.) 7. *The Burgundian*, which since the year 1536 had belonged to the Spanish branch of the Habsburg family, and consequently was no longer, strictly speaking, a portion of the empire, comprehended Holland, Belgium, and a part of the north of France, omitting Lüttich (Liège).

(46.) 8. *The Westphalian* circle, between the Mass (Meuse) and the Weser, comprised the duchies of Cleves, Jülich, Berg, the county of Marle, the six bishopries of Liège, Münster, Paderborn, Minden, Verden, and Osnabrück (Osnaburgh), with East Friesland, Oldenburg,

the imperial cities of Cologne, Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), Dortmund, &c.

(47.) 9. *The Lower Saxon*—the archbishopries of Magdeburg and Bremen, the bishopries of Halberstadt, Hildesheim and Lubeck, the duchies of Braunschweig (Brunswick) and Lüneburg, Saxe-Lauenburg, Holstein, Mecklenburg, six imperial cities, &c.

(48.) 10. *The Upper Saxon*—the two electorates of Saxony and Brandenburg, the two Pomeranian duchies (Stettin and Wolgast), the principality of Anhalt, the landgravate of Thuringia, &c.

(49.) These ten circles comprehended more than 250 states; but as the smaller voted in groups, scarcely more than 100 members appeared at the diet. Bohemia (with its provinces of Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia), together with the Prussian and Livonian states, was entirely excluded from this arrangement; Switzerland was also exempted (by Maximilian in 1508) from the jurisdiction of the chamber and the necessity of furnishing its contingent of troops and money. Italy was hardly even in name a portion of the empire. The kingdom of Arles had been annexed piecemeal to France.

(50.) 2. Italian wars respecting Milan and Naples.

a. *Occupation for a short time of Naples by the French* (1495). Charles VIII., who had inherited, as heir of the house of Anjou, the claims of his father to the Neapolitan throne, obtained possession of Naples. But the facility with which the conquest was achieved rendered the French so insolent, that a league was formed between Venice, the Pope, the King of Arragon, the Emperor, and the Duke of Milan, for the restoration of Ferdinand II., who returned to his kingdom, supported by troops from Arragon, and compelled the feeble garrisons left by Charles to capitulate, on condition of being permitted to depart unmolested.

(51.) b. *Conquest of Milan by the French in* 1499. —Louis XII., the successor of Charles VIII., in conjunction with Venice, conquered the duchy of Milan, which he claimed in right of his grandmother, Valentina Visconti (see genealogical table, § 7). The French were

soon afterwards expelled by Ludovico Moro, who in his turn was betrayed by his Swiss mercenaries, and died in a French prison.

(52.) c. *Conquest of Naples by the French and Spaniards in* 1501.—Louis XII., whose power had been greatly augmented by the acquisition of Milan, formed an alliance with Ferdinand of Arragon (the Catholic) for the re-conquest of Naples. The reigning sovereign, Frederick II., was conveyed a prisoner to France, and continued a pensioner of the French crown until his death; but the French and Spaniards having quarrelled respecting the division of the booty, the Spanish general, Gonsalvo de Cordova, defeated the French, and compelled Louis XII. to relinquish his claims.

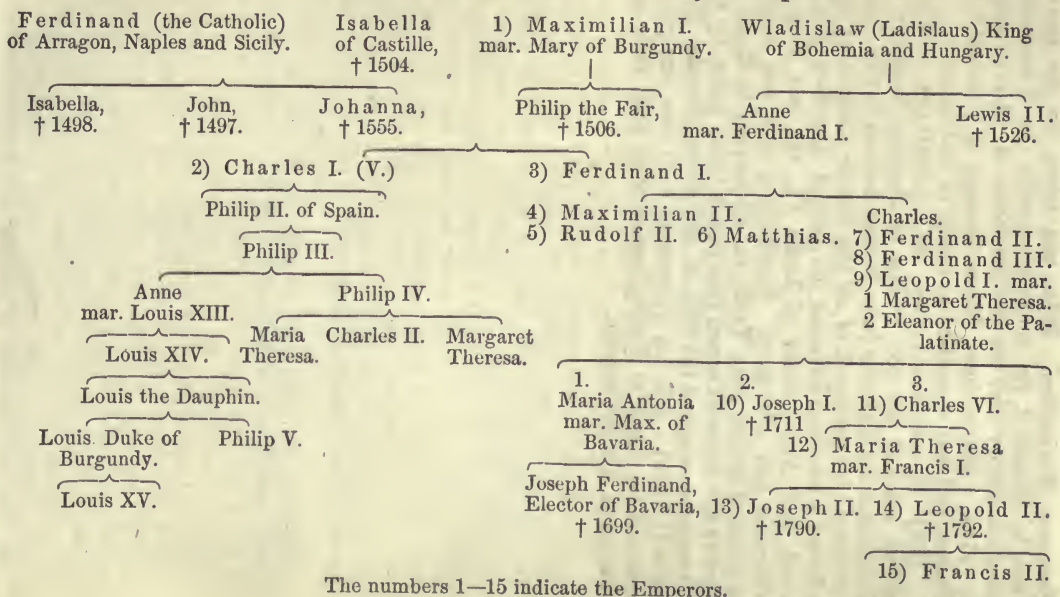
(53.) d. *War against Venice* (1508–9).—Although Louis was indebted to the Venetians for the acquisition of Milan, and depended mainly on their friendship for the secure possession of his conquest, he was nevertheless weak enough to enter into a confederacy with the Pope (Julius II.), the Emperor Maximilian, and Ferdinand the Catholic, for the ruin of Venice. By this treaty, termed the league of Cambray, it was agreed that the Venetians should be compelled to restore all the territory which they had wrested from any of the allies. But scarcely had the war commenced (with a battle near Agnadello, in which the Venetians were defeated), when the confederacy was broken up, the Venetians acquiescing in all the demands of the Pope and Ferdinand, and forming with those two powers

(54.) e. *The Holy League* (1511) for the expulsion of the French from Italy. The French lost Milan, which was recovered by the successor of Louis, Francis I., in a brilliant victory over the Swiss at Marignano (1515). The French gained at first some advantage over the allies (near Ravenna); but their brave leader, Gaston de Foix, having fallen in the battle, the Swiss garrisoned Milan for Maximilian Sforza; and although the city was taken, for the third time, by the French (after the dissolution of the league), they were compelled at last to abandon it (after their defeat at Novara), and about the same time were overthrown (at Guinegate) by the English and the

Emperor Maximilian. Milan was taken, for the fourth time, by Francis I. (in conjunction with the Venetians), after his victory over the divided Swiss at Marignano in 1515. Maximilian Sforza became a pensioner of France, and was compelled to reside in that country.

(55.) 3. Acquisitions of territory.—Maximilian married his son Philip to Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand the Catholic (who became heiress to the Spanish throne by the death of all the nearer claimants), and effected a marriage between his second grandson Ferdinand, and Anne, sister of Louis II., the last king of *Bohemia* and *Hungary*. Maximilian, who was unable to proceed farther than Trent, on his journey to Rome to receive the imperial crown (the passes being beset by the Venetians), adopted the title of *Self-elected Roman Emperor* († 1519). All his successors, with one exception, assumed the imperial dignity immediately after their coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle.

## (56.) *The House of Hapsburg in Germany and Spain.*




The numbers 1—15 indicate the Emperors.

## 2. Charles V., 1519—1556.

(57.) After the death of Maximilian, two candidates for the imperial dignity appeared in the persons of his grandson, Charles I., King of Spain and Naples, and Francis I., King of France, the latter of whom relied for success on the friendship of the Pope, and the liberality with which he had distributed among the electors presents, and promises of assistance against the Turks. Austria, on her part, was equally active, and the result was the unanimous election of Charles, who was required to sign an instrument, by which the rights of the electors and of the empire were secured. By this union of the German and Spanish crowns, France was surrounded on three sides by the territories of one gigantic power. It was not until the year 1530, that Charles V. received, at Bologna, the imperial and Italian crowns from the hands of the Pope. (For the diet of Worms, see page 7.)

Wars of Charles V.

(58.) *First war with Francis I.*, 1521—1526. The immediate occasion of a war between Charles and Francis, the two most powerful sovereigns of Europe, was the simultaneous refusal of Francis to restore the duchy of Burgundy (which had been wrested by Louis XI. from Charles's grandmother), and of Charles to cede to France the kingdom of Navarre, which had been conquered by Ferdinand the Catholic. A fatal error on the part of the French leader, Lautrec, in permitting the junction of the imperial and papal armies, occasioned the loss of Milan, which was conferred on Duke Francis Sforza. During the preparation of Francis I. for its re-capture, his near relation, the Constable Charles de Bourbon (who had been deprived of the government of Milan and the command-in-chief of the army, on account of some insult offered by him to the Queen Mother), went over to the imperialists. A portion of the duchy of Milan was reconquered, but the French were soon compelled to commence a retreat, in which Bayard (the "chevalier sans peur et sans reproche") lost his life.

(59.) The imperialists having made an unsuccessful

incursion into the South of France, Francis availed himself of this opportunity for a last attempt on Milan, and entering Italy, reconquered, almost without opposition, the greater part of the duchy. Then he sat down before the fortified city of Pavia, after dispatching a division of his army to Naples for the reconquest of that kingdom. Meanwhile an imperial army, commanded by Pescara, had marched to the relief of Pavia, where the French were utterly defeated in 1525. In this battle Francis I. was taken prisoner, and compelled to purchase his liberation by renouncing (in the Convention of Madrid, 1526) all claims to Italy and Burgundy, and delivering up his sons as hostages. No sooner, however, had he regained his freedom, than he refused to fulfil the conditions, which, as he asserted, had been violently imposed on him, and were contrary to his coronation oath. Hence *the second war*, 1527—1529. The Pope (Clement VII.) having quarrelled with the emperor (who had refused to support him in his claims on Ferrara), and formed an alliance with Francis I. and the republic of Venice, a war again broke out between the two great European powers. George Frundsberg entered Italy at the head of an imperial army, joined the Constable Charles de Bourbon, and soon afterwards died. The Constable then marched without opposition to Rome, but lost his life during the storming of the city, which was taken and plundered by his troops. The Pope, who had taken refuge in the castle of St. Angelo, was released by the Emperor after promising to summon a general council for the reunion and reformation of the Church, and to oppose the divorce of Henry VIII. of England from Catherine (Charles's aunt). In the year 1528, a French army (under Lautrec) conquered Naples, with the exception of the capital, which was saved by Andrew Doria, a noble Genoese, who had gone over to the Emperor in consequence of insults received from the French. The French besieging army was almost exterminated by pestilence. In the following year a peace (called the Ladies' Peace, because it was negotiated by Louisa of Savoy, mother of Francis, and Margaret of Austria, Charles's aunt) was concluded at Cambray, Francis retaining Burgundy, but agreeing to pay a ran-

som of two millions of crowns for the liberation of his sons, and renouncing all claims to Flanders and Italy.

(60.) *War with the Turks*, 1526—1532. Solyman II. had entered Hungary (in consequence of a summons dispatched from Madrid by Francis I.), and had defeated and slain the Hungarian King Lewis, in the battle of Mohacz (1526). Lewis was succeeded in both kingdoms by his brother-in-law, the Archduke Ferdinand (brother of Charles V.), the powerful Waiwode of Transylvania (John Zapolya) being at the same time elected King of Hungary by another party. Meanwhile Solyman II. had renewed the war (previously to the conclusion of peace at Cambray in 1529), and taken Zapolya under his protection, marched, almost without opposition, to the gates of Vienna, but withdrew his forces after besieging the city for three weeks, in consequence of a report that an army was advancing to its relief. Zapolya, who had received the so-called holy crown from the hands of the infidels, remained sovereign of Hungary (or rather a vassal of the Sultan), his rival Ferdinand being too poor to prosecute his claims. Solyman, who had never altogether abandoned his favorite project of universal conquest, was encouraged by the distracted state of Christendom to enter Hungary a second time (in 1532) with 250,000 men; but the Emperor had in the mean time effected a reconciliation with the Protestants, and immediately after the conclusion of peace at Nürnberg was enabled to take the field at the head of 80,000 men. This unexpected opposition, the checks which he had already received before several unimportant places, and the intelligence of Doria's victories in the Ionian Seas, were deemed by Solyman sufficient reasons for a hasty retreat.

(For an account of the diets of *Spires* and *Augsburg*, see page 9.)

(61.) *Expedition against Tunis*, 1535. Muley Hassan, King of Tunis, was deposed by Hayraddin Barbarossa, a vassal of Solyman II., and chief of a band of corsairs, who had established himself in Algiers a short time before. The coasts of Spain and Southern Italy having been ravaged by these pirates, in defiance of the Knights of St. John (to whom Charles at his coronation,

in 1530, had granted Malta, Gozzo, and Tripoli, as fiefs, on condition of their waging perpetual war against unbelievers and pirates), a Spanish-Italian fleet of 420 sail was fitted out by the Emperor, who stormed the fortress of Goletta, defeated the army of Hayraddin before Tunis, took the city, and set at liberty a large body of Christian slaves (22,000) who were confined in its prisons. The whole of the conquered territory, except Goletta and the coast, was restored to Muley Hassan by the Emperor.

(62.) *Third war with Francis I.*, 1536—1538. Francis Sforza, of Milan, having died without issue, and bequeathed his possessions to the Emperor, an attempt was made by Francis I. to regain possession of the duchy. After demanding from the Duke of Savoy (brother-in-law of Charles V.) a free passage through his territories, as well as the cession of a portion of the duchy (which he claimed in right of his descent from Philip of Savoy, his maternal grandfather), Francis suddenly entered Savoy and Piedmont, declared war against the Emperor, and formed an alliance with the Turkish Sultan. At the same time Charles V. invaded France, but was compelled by want of provisions to follow the advice of the Constable Montmorency and retire, after laying waste the whole of Provence. In 1538, an armistice was concluded at Nice, each party retaining the places which he had taken during the war. Milan was given to Philip, Charles's son.

(63.) *Charles's Expedition against Algiers*, 1541, was occasioned by the terrible depredations of the Algerine corsairs on the coasts of Spain and Italy. An army was landed on the African coast, but its operations were frustrated by continual rains, and a second storm destroyed the greater part of the fleet.

(64.) *Fourth war against Francis I.*, 1542—1544. The disaster which had befallen the Emperor before Algiers, and the advance of a Turkish army into Upper Hungary, seemed to afford a favorable opportunity for the reassertion of those claims which had never been entirely abandoned by Francis I. The assassination of two (so-called) French ambassadors by some Spanish troops, served as a pretext for hostilities, which were recom-

menced by Francis in conjunction with his allies the Turks, Danes, Swedes, and the Duke of Cleves.

(65.) The Turks took possession (after the death of Zapolya) of all that remained of Christian Hungary, and the French, with an army composed of Danes and subjects of the Duke of Cleves, invaded the Netherlands, whilst the united fleets of France and Turkey scoured the Mediterranean and stormed Nice. The Duke of Cleves, who had trusted to the strength of his fortresses (all of which capitulated after the capture of the previously impregnable stronghold of Düren), was the first of his enemies defeated by Charles V. Having received assistance from the states of the empire (including even the Protestant powers) and concluded an alliance with England, the Emperor then marched through Champagne, as far as Soissons, on his way to Paris. This movement hastened the peace of Crespy, which was concluded in 1544, the two sovereigns pledging themselves to assist each other against the Turks, and to strain every nerve for the restoration of the ancient religion. At the same time Francis renounced his claims to Naples, Milan, and Flanders.

(*For the Schmalkaldian war*, and *the war with Maurice of Saxony*, see page 10.)

(66) *War with Henry II. of France* (1552). Availing himself of the distracted state of Germany, Henry II., by dint of liberal promises of assistance to the Protestants, obtained possession of the bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. An unsuccessful attempt of Charles V. to reconquer those cities was followed by an armistice for five years.

(67) Abdication of Charles V. The elevation of Paul IV. to the papal throne threatening a revival of the old contests between the Pope and Emperor, Charles V., whose strength had been for a long time declining, resigned the sovereignty of Naples, Milan, and the Netherlands, in 1555, and the crown of Spain in the following year, to his son Philip; and having abdicated the imperial dignity in favor of his brother Ferdinand, retired to Spain, where he established himself in the Hieronymite monastery of St. Just, near Placentia. In this retirement his time was divided between the duties

of religion, music, gardening, and the manufacture of wooden clocks. After celebrating his own obsequies, he died on the 21st of September 1558, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

## § 4. *Spain.*

(68) 1. The marriage of Ferdinand the Catholic (1479—1516) and Isabella of Castille (1474—1504) laid the foundation of a union between the kingdoms of Arragon (to which Sicily and Sardinia also belonged) and Castille. To these possessions were added (by Ximenes) the kingdom of Grenada, Naples (1534), and the conquests on the north coast of Africa (Oran, 1509). The anxious desire of the two sovereigns was to render the monarchy as far as possible independent of the nobility and the higher order of clergy. With this view the grand-masterships of the three orders of chivalry (St. James, Alcantara, and Calatrava) were annexed to the crown, which in consequence exercised unlimited control over the estates, finances, and military resources of the orders. Encouragement was also given to the leagues (Hermandades) of cities against the tyranny of the nobles. The newly established inquisition was employed for the ruin of those who had rendered themselves obnoxious to the court, as well as for the extirpation of heresy, and the persecution of the Jews, whose expulsion from the kingdom on account of their apostasy from a religion to which they had been converted by force, secured to the crown the possession of their forfeited property. A lustre was thrown over the reign of Ferdinand[10] by the discovery of America, the admirable

[10] The principal part of the glory of this reign must be attributed to queen Isabella. She evinced the greatest courage during the vicissitudes of her youth. When Ferdinand fled from Segovia, she undauntedly remained there. She would guard the Alhama, at the gates of Grenada, when her most valiant officers proposed a retreat. She consented reluctantly to the establishment of the Inquisition. She loved literature, and aided its advancement. She understood Latin; while Ferdinand could scarcely sign his name. Notwithstanding the objections of Ferdinand, she armed the fleet which discovered America. She defended the

administration of Cardinal Ximenes, and the reputation acquired by the Spanish warriors in the conquest of Grenada and Naples under their renowned leader Gonzalvo de Cordova. Isabella was succeeded in the sovereignty of Castille by her daughter Joanna and her husband Philip I., son of the Emperor Maximilian, who conquered Navarre as far as the Pyrenees. Two years after his succession Philip died (1506), and his widow having fallen into a state of imbecility, Ximenes persuaded the estates of Castille to confer the sovereignty on Ferdinand the Catholic, who was succeeded in both his kingdoms by Philip's son,

(69) 2. Charles I. (1516—1556), who commenced his reign under the guardianship of Cardinal Ximenes; but on his arrival in Spain from the Netherlands, the minister was disgraced, and died soon afterwards of vexation. Cardinal Adrian, a native of the Netherlands, having been appointed regent of the kingdom during the absence of Charles in Germany, the cities of Castille, irritated at the oppressive and increasing taxation, formed themselves into a confederacy called the "Holy Junta," and sent an army into the field under the command of Don Juan Padilla, who was defeated near Villalar (1521), taken prisoner, and executed. On his return Charles proclaimed a general amnesty; but the privileges of the Castilian crown were still maintained at the expense of the people's freedom, and the Cortes, although it continued its sessions, had become powerless and contemptible.

(70) But it was not merely by the extension of his prerogative that Charles upheld and augmented the dignity of the Spanish crown. From his ancestors he had inherited the whole of Spain, the Netherlands, the Austrian states (with the exception of Bohemia and Hungary), Sicily, Sardinia, and Naples, the recently discovered West India islands, the colonies on the north coast of Africa, and the Canary islands. To these he had added the kingdom of Germany, the duchy of Milan, the prov-

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accused Columbus; consoled Gonsalvo de Cordova in his disgrace; and gave liberty to the unhappy Americans.—*Michelet.* (S.)

inces of Utrecht, Oberyssel, and Groeningen, and the rich transatlantic countries of Mexico, Peru, Chili, Quito, and New Granada. The whole of this enormous mass of territory, with the exception of Germany and the Austrian states, he delivered over (in 1556) to his only son,

(71) 3. Philip II. 1556—1598, husband of Mary, Queen of England, whose gloomy, reserved, and haughty behavior disgusted his Spanish subjects, whilst his undisguised preference for Spain rendered him equally unpopular in the Netherlands. *The war with France*, which he had inherited from his father, was carried on with the assistance of England, and terminated, after the battle of St. Quintin,[1] and another victory gained by Count Egmont, near Gravelines, by the peace of Chateau Cambresis (1559), the French consenting to restore all the territory which they had acquired by conquest in Italy. In this reign the royal residence was transferred from Valladolid to Madrid. Spain had now reached the summit of her glory, from which she began rapidly to decline. The persecution of the Moors, commenced by Ferdinand the Catholic, and renewed by Charles V., was carried on with increased severity by Philip, who compelled them to renounce not only their faith, but even their customs, dress, and language. This occasioned a civil war, which lasted two years, and was infamous for the acts of revolting cruelty perpetrated by both parties. The naval power of the Turks (who had sanctioned the pillage of the Italian and Spanish coasts by the corsair states of Africa) was annihilated in the battle of Lepanto (1571) by the combined imperial, Venetian and papal fleets, under the command of Philip's natural brother, Don John of Austria; but the advantages of this victory were neutralized by Philip's jealousy of his brother.

(72.) The heaviest loss sustained by Spain at this period was the defection of the seven united

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[1] It was in fulfilment of a vow made during this battle that Philip built the Escurial, a royal palace of Spain, about twenty-two miles from Madrid, at the foot of the mountains which divide the two Castilles. (S.)

provinces of the Netherlands (see § 5). On the other hand, Portugal, to which Philip had some claim by his mother's side (as grandson of Emanuel the Great), was annexed to the Spanish crown by the Duke of Alva, after the extinction of the Burgundian line in that country (1580). As the Protestant Queen of England, Elizabeth, supported the United Netherlands in their resistance to Spain, and at the same time attacked the Spanish colonies in America, Philip, relying on the support of the Romanists in England, fitted out a fleet of 150 sail (called *the Invincible Armada*), which was beaten by the English off Dunkirk, and almost annihilated by a storm, in 1588. From this blow the power of Spain never rallied. Philip sank into the grave with the melancholy consciousness that all his plans had ended in disappointment and disgrace. His son, Don Carlos, a feeble-minded youth, whose violence bordered on insanity, was arrested, not on account of his love for his stepmother,[2] but in consequence of his treasonable projects, and died in prison, probably from natural causes, in 1568.

(73.) 4. Philip III. (1598—1621). The narrow-minded policy of this monarch, and his incapable minister the Duke of Lerma, in expelling all the Moriscos (baptized Moors), hastened the downfall of Spain by depriving her of the most intelligent and industrious portion of her population. In the year 1609, Philip was obliged to conclude an armistice for twelve years with the Netherlands. The ruin of Spain was still further accelerated by his son,

(74.) Philip IV. (1621—1665), who abandoned the government of Spain to his minister, the Count Olivarez. The folly of this man in seeking to restore prosperity by the introduction of a uniform system of administration rather than by a rigid economy in the expenditure of the court, occasioned an *insurrection of the Catalonians*, who resisted for twelve years the attempt of Olivarez to deprive their province of its peculiar privileges. For the *defection of Portugal*, see § 6. In consequence of these

[2] As represented by Schiller, in his tragedy of Don Carlos.

miscarriages Olivarez was removed, but the administration of his successor, Luis de Haro, seems to have been scarcely more judicious. Great discontent was excited in the provinces by immoderate taxation and by the appointment of none but Spaniards to offices of trust and honor. The imposition of a fresh tax occasioned an *insurrection at Naples* (1647), headed by a fisherman named Tommaso Aniello (generally contracted into Masaniello), who compelled the Spanish viceroy to grant all his demands. The assassination of this patriot by his enemies occasioned a fresh outbreak, which was quelled by the appearance of a Spanish fleet off the harbor. The independence of the United Netherlands was fully recognized by Spain in the peace of Westphalia (1648).

### § 5. *The Netherlands.*

(75.) At the commencement of the mediæval period, the Netherlands belonged to France, after the partition of that kingdom, to Lorraine, and subsequently to the duchy of Lower Lorraine. They were gradually split into a number of small duchies and counties, all of which, either by conquest, marriage, or purchase, became the property of the Dukes of Burgundy. Charles the Bold possessed fourteen Netherlandish provinces (viz., the four duchies, Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Geldern; the counties of Flanders, Artois, Hennegau, Namur, Holland, Zealand, and Zütphen, the margravate of Antwerp, and the seigniories of Mechlin and Friesland), which were annexed to Austria by the marriage of Maximilian I. with Mary of Burgundy. To these were added the three provinces of Utrecht, Oberyssel, and Groeningen, by Charles V. Under the Dukes of Burgundy the Netherlandish *States*, as they were called, obtained several important privileges, such as the right of self-taxation and levying their own contingent of troops, which Philip II. on two occasions (in 1549 and 1555), solemnly swore to respect and defend. After the peace of Chateau Cambresis, Philip quitted the Netherlands, leaving as his representative his natural sister, Marga-

ret of Parma, who was assisted by Granvella, Bishop of Arras. Offices of the highest trust and importance were also conferred on the great native nobles, William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and Lamoral, Count Egmont; and the Count Van Hoorn was appointed admiral of the Netherlandish fleet. But these popular measures were neutralized by the appointment of foreigners to the other great offices of state, the quartering of a Spanish force (3000 men) in the Netherlands, and the establishment of fourteen new bishoprics and three archbishoprics, the chief of which, Mechlin, was conferred on Granvella, who soon afterwards obtained a cardinal's hat. The discontent excited by these proceedings was aggravated by a persecution of the Protestants, and at last reached such a height, that Granvella deemed it most prudent to quit the Netherlands. After the publication of the articles agreed on by the Council of Trent, a protest against the Spanish inquisition and the severity of the ecclesiastical laws was presented to the Duchess-Regent at Brussels, by a confederacy of 250 noblemen (origin of the faction called "les gueux")[3]. As no decisive answer was given to this petition, the populace became furious, and commenced a general attack on the churches, which so terrified Margaret, that she consented to the suppression of the inquisition in the Netherlands, and the revocation of the edict commanding uniformity of belief and worship. Egmont was satisfied with these concessions, and promised to support the government; but the Prince of Orange still continued his opposition, and finding his party too feeble for an open demonstration, fled for safety into Germany, an example which was speedily followed by most of the Protestants. In the year 1567, the Duke of Alva appeared in the Netherlands with an army of 20,000 men, and assumed the principal direction of the government; but the arrest of Egmont,

[3] As the members of the confederacy approached the palace, walking two and two in solemn procession, the Duke of Barlaimont cried out contemptuously, "Ce n'est qu'un tas de *gueux*" (it is only a heap of beggars)—a designation which was thenceforth adopted by all the Netherlandish patriots.—Wolfgang Menzel's *Geschichte der Deutschen*, cap. 422.

Hoorn, and other nobles, without the sanction of his co-regent, so disgusted Margaret, that she resigned her office and retired to Italy, where she remained until her death. Alva, now sole governor, immediately established a commission of inquiry (called by the people *the bloody court*), which commenced proceedings against the Prince of Orange and all who had either signed the protestation or taken any part in acts of sacrilege. Those who refused to appear were outlawed, and their goods confiscated. Egmont, Hoorn, and several other noblemen, were executed at Brussels as conspirators against the state (1568).[4]

(76.) The Prince of Orange, on receiving intelligence of the confiscation of his estates, immediately made arrangements for an invasion of the Netherlands, in conjunction with his brother Lewis of Nassau; but Lewis was defeated by Alva near Jemmingen on the Ems, and the prince himself compelled to retreat almost as soon as he had crossed the frontier. Even those Netherlanders who had hitherto remained faithful to Alva, were now disgusted by the imposition of a new tax (one per cent. on all property, and five per cent. on the sale of immovable, and ten per cent. of movable merchandise), and placed themselves under the command of the Prince of Orange, who was elected *royal* stattholder of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, at a general meeting of deputies of the insurgent states held at Dort in 1572. In the following year Alva was dismissed at his own request, and succeeded in the government of the Netherlands by Don Luis de Zuniga y Requesens (1573—1576), who dissolved the "bloody court," and after a victory gained by the Spaniards on the banks of the Maas, and an unsuccessful attempt on Leyden (1575), endeavored fruitlessly to negotiate a peace, and died in the following year. A confederation of Netherlandish provinces was formed at Ghent for mutual defence against the Spanish troops, who were liquidating their long arrears of pay by the plunder of Maestricht, Antwerp, and other

[4] The Duke of Alva made it a boast, on his return to Spain, that he had put to death with the sword more than 18,000 men in the Netherlands.—S.

rich cities. On receiving intelligence of this movement, Philip II. appointed his half-brother, Don Juan of Austria (a natural son of Charles V.), governor of the Netherlands (1576—1578), and after his death (at the end of two years) conferred the office on an experienced warrior and statesman named Alexander Farnese, of Parma (son of the late Regent Margaret; 1578—1592), who conciliated the southern or Walloon provinces (which had remained faithful to the Church of Rome), by securing to them the enjoyment of their ancient privileges.

(77.) On the other hand, the seven northern provinces, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Gelderland, Groeningen, Friesland, and Oberyssel, all of which had embraced the doctrines of the Reformation, formed a union at Utrecht (in 1579), formally renounced their allegiance to Philip in 1581, and were on the eve of conferring the hereditary countship of the Netherlands on William of Orange, when he fell by the hand of an assassin (1584.) The government of the seven united provinces was then committed to his brave son, Maurice of Nassau-Orange (1584—1625).

(78.) In the mean time, Alexander of Parma having obtained possession of Ghent, Brussels, Mechlin, Nimeguen, and lastly of Antwerp (after a siege in which both sides greatly distinguished themselves, 1585), the states-general applied for assistance to Elizabeth Queen of England, and consented to appoint the Earl of Leicester general stattholder; but the interference of Maurice of Orange and Oldenbarneveld (pensionary of Rotterdam) so crippled his operations, that he soon resigned his appointment (1587). Notwithstanding, however, this untoward occurrence, friendly relations were still maintained between the Netherlands and England; and in consequence, Philip II. fitted out his invincible Armada, hoping, after he had subdued England, to find the Netherlands an easy prey. After the destruction of this fleet, Alexander of Parma, so far from making any further aggressions on the independence of the northern provinces, was scarcely able to maintain his authority in the south. The united provinces, aided by France, continued to carry on war against

Alexander and his feeble successors with such success (notwithstanding the capture of Ostend by the Spanish general Spinola), that they obtained, in the year 1609, an armistice for twelve years, and subsequently, at the peace of Westphalia, a distinct recognition of their independence by the Spanish government.

(79.) The Dutch Protestants were divided about this time into two parties, Arminians, or remonstrants, who rejected, and Gomarists, or Counter-Remonstrants, who held Calvin's favorite tenet of predestination. The Arminians, after the condemnation of their doctrine by the Synod of Dort in 1618, were cruelly persecuted by their opponents, who put Oldenbarneveld to death, and condemned Hugo Grotius and others to perpetual imprisonment.

## § 6. *Portugal.*

(80.) A. The illegitimate Burgundian line (1383—1580).

The most prosperous days of Portugal were under her rulers of the illegitimate Burgundian house, especially Emanuel the Great (1495—1521)[5], when the discovery of a new passage by sea to India, and the conquests and settlements of the Portuguese in Asia, rendered Lisbon the first commercial city of Europe.

After the defeat and death (?) of King Sebastian at Alkassar in 1578 (in a war against Fez and Morocco), and the short reign of his great uncle, the Cardinal Henry

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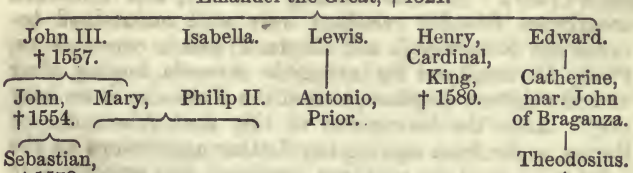
[5] Emanuel the Great, † 1521.



(1578—1580), Portugal became a Spanish province, retaining, however, her own constitution.

B. As a Spanish province, 1581—1640. A report being widely circulated that King Sebastian was still alive, three pretenders claimed the crown in succession, but were speedily arrested and executed. It is uncertain whether the fourth claimant was also an impostor, or the real King Sebastian who had escaped with life after the battle of Alkassar. Under Spanish domination, Portugal not only lost most of her foreign possessions, but was even deprived of those privileges which Philip II. had sworn to respect and maintain. All the public offices were filled with Spaniards, commerce was crippled by vexatious restrictions and heavy imposts, the crown lands alienated, and the fortresses dismantled. This state of slavery was terminated, almost without bloodshed, by a revolution which raised to the throne (in 1640) Duke John of Braganza (descended from a natural son of John I.), and established the independence of Portugal in spite of repeated attempts on the part of Spain to reconquer her ancient province.

## § 7. *France.*

### A. Under the House of Valois (1328)—1589.

83. 8. [6] Louis XII. (1498—1515) (Duke of Orleans) succeeded his cousin Charles VIII. on the throne of France, which comprehended at that period a much less extensive territory than at present (Flanders, Artois, Lorraine, Franche-comté and Alsace having been since added), but which, nevertheless, occupied a distinguished position in Europe on account of the compact union of its different provinces, its admirable military organization, and the firmly established authority of the crown. For the French wars in Italy, see § 3. He was succeeded by his son-in-law.

(84.) 9. Francis I. (1515—1547) (Count of Angou-

[6] See Handbook of Mediæval Geography and History, p. 143.

lême[7] and Duke of Valois) disgusted most of his subjects by the wanton extravagance with which he lavished the revenues of the crown on his mistresses and unworthy favorites. The first act of his reign was the revival of his wife's claim to the duchy of Milan, which he recovered after a brilliant victory over the Swiss at Marignano in 1515 (see page 20). For his unsuccessful attempt to obtain the imperial crown, see page 24. His four wars with Charles V. all of which were prejudicial to the interests of his kingdom) terminated in the loss of Milan through the insufficiency of the previous preparations, and the incapacity of Francis either to arrange any connected system of military operations, or to carry out with perseverance even his own imperfect plans. This disaster occasioned the imposition of still heavier taxes, and the establishment of a system of plunder in Provence, Champagne, and Picardy. His ambitious projects at home were attended with better success. The duchy of Britany was annexed by marriage to the crown of France, the most powerful vassals rendered dependent on the throne by their appointment to offices at court, the choice of bishops and abbots vested in the crown by virtue of a concordat with the Pope, and the parliament of Paris, which had refused to register these and other arbitrary acts, humbled by the

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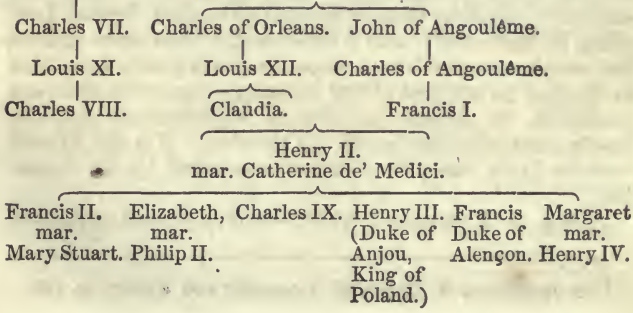
[7] Charles V.



withdrawal of its privileges. The establishment of a national infantry enabled him to discharge his foreign mercenaries, and thus rendered him less dependent on other countries. Legislation was, for the most part, intrusted to the Chancellors of France. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that Francis merited his title of Père des lettres, by the encouragement which he gave to science, literature, and the fine arts. His son

(85.) 10. Henry II. (1547—1559) was completely under the influence of his mistress, Diana of Poitiers, the Guises[8] (Francis, Duke of Guise, and Charles, Cardinal of Lorraine, a branch of the house of Lorraine), and the Constable Montmorency. As an ally of Maurice of Saxony, Henry renewed the war with Charles V. ostensibly for the benefit of the German Protestants, although he tortured and murdered their brethren in France. Metz, Toul, and Verdun were betrayed into the hands of the French. Francis of Guise distinguished himself by his defence of Metz against Charles V. The French, who had recommenced hostilities on the accession of Philip, Charles's son, were defeated at St. Quentin by the Spaniards, assisted by an English force obtained from Philip's consort, Mary Queen of England.

(86.) At the peace of Chateau Cambresis, concluded in 1559, after the defeat of their forces by Count Egmont near Gravelines, all the places recently taken by the French were restored, with the exception of Calais, which had been recaptured from the English by Francis of Guise, and again contained a French population.

(87.) 11. Francis II. (1559—1560) husband of Mary Stuart. The mental as well as bodily imbecility of

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[8] Claude de Guise.

| Francis, Duke, † 1563. | Mary, wife of James V. of Scotland. | Charles, Cardinal of Lorraine. |
|---|---|---|
| | Mary Stuart, | |

| Henry, † 1488. | Charles of Mayenne, † 1611. | Louis, Cardinal, † 1588. |
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this sovereign, who was only sixteen when he ascended the throne, rendered the regency an object of ambition to *a.* Catherine de' Medici, his mother. *b.* The Bourbons,[9] descendants of the youngest son of Louis IX. (Antony, King of Navarre, in right of his wife, and Louis of Condé), who claimed the office as princes of the blood royal nearest in succession to the crown. *c.* The Guises, who claimed as uncles of the King's wife. The Guises having triumphed over their opponents, Francis of Guise undertook the military, and the Cardinal of Lorraine the civil administration of the kingdom. Under his brother

(88.) 12. Charles IX. (1560—1574), who ascended the throne at eleven years of age, the Guises lost all their influence. The Queen mother now undertook the regency, the King of Navarre was appointed lieutenant of the kingdom, and the free exercise of their religion without the walls of the city was granted to the Huguenots. The murder of a number of Protestants in a barn at Vassy on the one part, and various acts of violence committed by the Protestants, especially in the south of France, on the other, occasioned the first of those religious wars by which France was distracted for more than thirty years.

(89.) In the first three the Huguenots, commanded by the Condés, and at a later period by Admiral Coligny and Henry of Navarre, were defeated in every battle (at Dreux 1562, St. Denys 1567, Jarnac and Moncontour 1569), but at the peace which followed each of these reverses (at Amboise in 1563, Lonjumeau, 1568, and St. Germain en Laye 1570) they obtained, in consequence of the exhausted condition of their enemies, complete religious freedom, and eventually the right of admission to offices of state, and the possession of four fortresses, which they were permitted to occupy with garrisons of their own. The marriage of Henry of Navarre to Margaret the king's

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[9] Charles, Duke of Vendôme.

| Antony, King of Navarre. | Charles, Cardinal. | Louis I. of Condé. |
|---|---|---|
| Henry IV. | | Henry I. of Condé, |

sister, and the invitation to court of Admiral Coligny and other distinguished Huguenots, seemed to augur well for the continuance of peace. Under these circumstances many thousands of Protestants were induced to visit Paris, where they were all massacred, with the exception of Coligny, on the night of the 24th of August, 1572 (the eve of St. Bartholomew). This atrocious act was planned by the Queen mother, Catherine de' Medici, her third son, Henry of Anjou, and the princes of Guise (sons of Duke Francis of Guise, who was murdered before Orleans), with the consent of the feeble-minded king. At the same time orders were issued for the murder of all the Huguenots in the provinces; but these bloody edicts were in some instances disobeyed by the provincial governors. Their fortresses were also taken from the Protestants. These atrocities occasioned the fourth religious war, in which La Rochelle, one of the strongholds of the Huguenots, was besieged by Henry of Anjou; but on the elevation of this prince to the throne of Poland, peace was concluded, and freedom of religious worship granted to the Protestants in certain districts. On the death of Charles IX. his brother was recalled from Poland, and ascended the throne of France as

(90.) 13. Henry III. (1574—1589), a contemptible prince, whose time was divided between the most licentious gratifications and acts of superstitious devotion. Under the influence of his profligate favorites, he pursued a system of extravagance which completely exhausted the exchequer. The discontent occasioned by his concessions to the Huguenots emboldened Duke Henry of Guise to form a Catholic league, ostensibly for the re-establishment and maintenance of Romanism, but in reality as the best means of forwarding those claims to the throne which he was determined to advance (at all events after the extinction of the house of Valois) as the lineal descendant of Charlemagne. The king, through mere terror, placed himself at the head of the league, and issued an edict forbidding the public profession of Protestantism—hence a fresh war (called "the war of the three Henrys") with the Huguenots under Henry of Navarre. Whilst the issue of this war was yet doubtful, a fresh

league was formed, called "*the league of the sixteen*," the object of which was the elevation of Guise to the throne of France. The king fled from Paris (on "the day of the Barricades"), but procured the assassination (1588) of Henry of Guise, and his brother the Cardinal Louis. The league, which was now headed by the Duke of Mayenne, brother of the murdered Guise, was goaded to desperation by this atrocious act, and Henry, to escape their fury, placed himself under the protection of Henry of Navarre, and in conjunction with his new ally besieged Paris, but was assassinated in his camp by a Dominican monk named Jacob Clement. On his death-bed he recommended the Bourbon prince, Henry of Navarre, as his successor.

(91.) B. Under the house of Bourbon, 1589 (—1792).

1. Henry IV., 1589—1610, after a five years' struggle with the leaguists (supported by the Spaniards), and two victories, at Arques and Ivry, embraced Romanism (in 1593), and entering Paris for the first time since his accession, was gradually recognized as king by the whole nation.

The religious wars, which had lasted with little intermission for thirty-eight years, were terminated by the Edict of Nantes, by which entire religious liberty, and admission to all offices of state, were secured to the Protestants. This period of tranquillity was employed by Henry in the restoration of prosperity to France by means of an extensive financial reform, conducted by his friend and minister Sully. Under his able administration trade revived, cities and villages were rebuilt, &c.; but scarcely were the wounds of the nation in some degree healed, when Henry announced his intention of following out the plans of his predecessors for the ruin of the house of Hapsburg, in the hope of finding sufficient employment in foreign wars for the restless ambition and energy of his subjects. With the view of wresting from Spain her provinces in Italy and Belgium, and at the same time destroying the power of Austria in Germany, Henry devised the plan of a universal Christian European republic, to be composed of fifteen states of equal

influence but dissimilar constitutions (six hereditary and five elective monarchies, and four republics). Perpetual peace was to be the result of this combination. The execution of this project was interrupted by the death of Henry, who was assassinated by Ravaillac during a progress through Paris, in 1610. He was succeeded by his son,

(93.) 2. Louis XIII. (1610—1643), a minor, who commenced his reign under the guardianship of his mother, Mary de' Medici. Sully having been dismissed from the administration, the Queen mother, under the direction of an Italian named Concini (Marquis d'Ancre), pursued a course of the most ruinous extravagance, which was only checked by her banishment from court, and the execution of Concini (through the influence of a favorite of the king named Luynes). A war between the king and his mother was averted by Jean Armand du Plessis, afterwards Cardinal and Duke of Richelieu, whose sagacious and energetic measures imparted new life to the state, and defeated all the treasonable attempts of the Queen mother (who soon afterwards fled from France, and died at Cologne) and her brother Gaston of Orleans. The grand objects of his administration, during a period of eighteen years, were, a. *the augmentation of the royal authority at home*, which he effected by depriving the Huguenots (after a protracted siege) of their stronghold, la Rochelle, and reducing them to the condition of a mere religious sect; refusing to convoke the estates of the realm, restricting the privilege of exemption from taxation hitherto enjoyed by the clergy, &c.; b. *the extension of the political influence of France abroad*. This policy was successfully adopted in Sweden, Italy (where the Mantuan war of succession was terminated by the elevation of the Duke of Nevers to the throne), the Netherlands, and Germany, where he carried out with success the plans of Henry IV. for diminishing the influence of the house of Hapsburg both in that country and in Spain. The last of these measures was rendered imperative by the circumstance of France being so nearly surrounded on three sides by Spanish provinces, as to require a strong force on almost every frontier, in

the event of a war with Spain. With this object in view, Richelieu supported the enemies of Hapsburg (the Netherlands, and German Protestants), and favored the separation of the Catalonians and Portuguese from Spain. His vigorous foreign policy raised France to the influential position which had been occupied by the Pope in the middle ages, and even during the Reformation, whilst at the same time comprehensive plans were devised for the extension of commerce, the augmentation of the naval force, the protection of the colonies, the construction of canals, and the embellishment of Paris, which was indebted to him for the establishment of the Academie Française, in 1635. A few months after Richelieu's death (4th December, 1642), Louis XIII. also died (14th May, 1643), leaving his kingdom to his son Louis XIV., a child of five years old.

## § 8. *England and Ireland under the house of Tudor*, 1485—1603.

(94.) 1. Henry VII. (1485—1509) put an end to the long war between the houses of York and Lancaster by the victory of Bosworth Field (1485), and by his sagacity, vigilance, and firmness defeated all the subsequent machinations of the Yorkists. The English nobility having been almost exterminated during the civil wars, Henry experienced little opposition to his authority, which he exercised as absolutely as any English king since the signing of Magna Charta. He increased the influence of the crown, secured to his subjects the protection of wise laws, encouraged trade and industry, took part in the new discoveries (Newfoundland, &c.), and laid the foundation of England's naval supremacy.

## (95.) The houses of Tudor and Stuart.

Henry VII., grandson of Queen Catherine (wife of Henry V.), and a Welsh nobleman named Tudor, † 1509; mar. Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., the last heiress of the house of York.

- **Arthur**, Prince of Wales, † 1502; mar. Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand the Catholic.
- **Henry VIII.**, † 1547; mar. 1. Catherine, his brother's widow, 2. Anna Boleyn, 3. Jane Seymour, 4. Anne of Cleves, 5. Catherine Howard, 6. Catherine Parr.
  - **Mary**, † 1558; mar. Philip II. of Spain.
  - **Elizabeth** † 1603; unmar.
  - **Edward VI.** † 1553.
- **Margaret**, mar. James IV. of Scotland.
  - **James V.**
    - **Mary Stuart**, Queen of Scotland, † 1587; mar. 1. Francis II. of France, 2. Henry Darnley, 3. The Earl of Bothwell.
      - **James VI. of Scotland, I. of England**, † 1625.
    - **Margaret**, mar. Matthew Stuart.
      - **Henry Darnley.**
- **Mary**, mar. 1. Louis XII. 2. The Duke of Suffolk.
  - **Frances**, mar. Henry Grey.
    - **Jane Grey**, † 1554; mar. Guilford Dudley, son of the Duke of Northumberland.

(96.) 2. Henry VIII. (1509—1547) married Catherine of Arragon, his brother's widow, and soon expended the treasure bequeathed to him by his father in court pageants and wars with France, carried on in conjunction with his father-in-law, Ferdinand, and at a later period with Charles V. Leaving the management of public affairs (for seventeen years) to Cardinal Wolsey, Henry occupied himself in theological studies, and published a reply to Luther's treatise concerning the Sacraments, which obtained for him from the Pope the title of "Defensor fidei." After a time, however, he quarrelled with the Pope, to whom he had addressed an unsuccessful petition for a divorce from his wife on the plea of his marriage being uncanonical. The king, exasperated by the vexatious delays on the part of the Pope in pronouncing a decision, determined to take the matter into his own hands, and was privately married to Anna Boleyn (1532), by whom he had a daughter, the future Queen Elizabeth. Henry now broke off all communication with Rome, and declared himself the supreme head of the Anglican Church. Many persons who resisted this claim were put to death by the advice of Thomas Cromwell, who had succeeded Wolsey in his office of Chancellor. Anna Boleyn, whose lively demeanor had excited the tyrant's jealousy, ended her days on the scaffold. The very day after her death he married one of her maids of honor, named Jane Seymour, who died soon after the birth of Edward VI. The obsequious parliament was now required to declare both his former marriages illegal, and consequently to bastardize Mary and Elizabeth. From his fourth wife (Anne, sister of the Duke of Cleves) he was soon divorced; his fifth (Catherine Howard) was beheaded for acts of unchastity committed before her marriage; and the sixth (Catherine Parr) was condemned to death for claiming to differ from the King on religious subjects, but obtained a remission of her sentence. His son

(97.) 3. Edward VI. (1547—1553), a boy of nine years old, was placed at first under the protectorate of his maternal uncle, who assumed the title of Duke of Somerset. After the death of Somerset (who was executed on a charge of attempting to dethrone the King), the

administration of public affairs was committed to the Duke of Northumberland, who persuaded the King to declare the Lady Jane Grey (Northumberland's daughter-in-law) heiress to the crown. After Edward's death, and before the parliament could confirm this change in the succession, Jane Grey was persuaded to assume the crown, which she resigned at the end of nine days in favor of the eldest daughter and rightful heiress of Henry VIII.,

(98.) 4. Mary Tudor (1553—1558), who soon afterwards married Philip II., at that time King of Naples and Duke of Milan. Northumberland, who had been chiefly instrumental in interrupting the regular succession to the throne, was convicted of high treason and executed: Jane Grey and her husband were also condemned to death; but the sentence was not carried into execution until it was rendered necessary, as the government alleged, by the breaking out of fresh disturbances. The re-establishment of Romanism in England was the signal for a fierce persecution of the Protestants, which continued until the death of the Queen. Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, Hooper, and other fathers of the Reformed Church, with many persons of inferior note, were cruelly burnt at the stake: others fled to the continent. Mary seems in this, as well as other passages of her reign, to have acted under the influence of her husband, Philip II., by whose persuasion she also engaged in a war with France, and lost Calais, the last of the English possessions in that country. After her death, the title of Queen of England was assumed by Mary Stuart, Dauphiness of France; but her party was too insignificant to resist successfully the claims of

(99.) 5. Elizabeth (1558—1603), a sovereign whose character seems to have been a union of opposite qualities. Possessing extraordinary talents for government, she was at the same time eminently successful in the cultivation of classical literature; her severity and caprice were tempered by gentleness and magnanimity; her vanity was willingly pardoned by those who witnessed her courageous patriotism. She restored the Anglican Episcopal Church, and was recognized by parliament as

its supreme head.[10] The wise administration of her ministers (Nicholas Bacon, Lord High Chancellor, and William Cecil, Lord Burghley, chief Secretary of State) and the long peace, insured the prosperity of agriculture and domestic trade; the operations of manufacturing industry were extended by the invention of the stocking-loom, and the ingenuity of fugitives from the Netherlands; and foreign commerce was promoted by voyages of discovery (see page 6), the establishment of colonies in North America, and the incorporation of the East India Company. The assistance rendered by Elizabeth to the revolted provinces in the Netherlands, the execution of Mary Stuart (see § 9), the capture of a hundred Spanish merchantmen on the high seas, and the destruction of a Spanish fleet in the harbor of Cadiz (both by Sir Francis Drake), provoked Philip to send out (after five years of preparation) "the Invincible Armada," under the Duke of Medina Sidonia; but before the fleet could form a junction, as it had been proposed, with a squadron from the Netherlands under Alexander Farnese, it was attacked by the English under Howard, and soon afterwards was scattered and almost annihilated by storms (1588). This victory was followed by the building of an English fleet of forty-two ships of war, and the establishment of a colonial power in North America (Virginia). Towards the end of Elizabeth's reign, Ireland, which (with the exception of the eastern third) had been, especially since the Reformation, scarcely more than a nominal province of England, was more closely united to the English crown. The free exercise of their religion had been guaranteed to the Irish (under the Earl of Tyrone) by the Queen's favorite, the Earl of Essex, perhaps in the hope of obtaining for himself the Irish crown; but after his fall, and the expulsion of the Spaniards who had landed on the coast, the Irish were compelled to submit unconditionally to the authority of England. Whilst all the other nations of Europe were becoming daily more enfeebled and insignificant, England, under the government of Queen Elizabeth, gradually raised herself to the

[10] See Article XXXVII. of the Church of England.

rank of a first-rate power. By her last ordinance (respecting the succession) Scotland was united to England and Ireland.

### § 9. *Scotland under the Stuarts.*

(100.) Scotland since the year 1371 had been governed by princes of the house of Stuart, the most unfortunate royal family in Europe. Of five kings named James, two were murdered by their subjects, two slain in wars with England, and the last, James V., was driven mad by the treason of his discontented vassals, and died in 1542, leaving one daughter, an infant of eight days' old.

(101.) Mary Stuart (1542—1568 [† 1587]), whilst her mother, Mary of Guise, governed Scotland as regent, was educated in France, where she married the Dauphin (afterwards Francis II.). After the death of Mary Tudor, she assumed the title of Queen of England, but was unable to prevent the accession of Elizabeth. The prerogative of the Queen of Scotland was vigorously defended by the regent at the commencement of John Knox's Reformation in Scotland, and after the death of her mother and her husband, Mary returned to her native country, and herself undertook the government (1561). Soon after her arrival she married her cousin Darnley, who (after the murder of her confidential secretary Rizzio) was blown up with the house in which he lay sick. The marriage of Mary with Bothwell (believed by the people to be the murderer of Darnley) occasioned an insurrection of the nobles, who compelled Mary to abdicate, drove Bothwell out of Scotland, and placed the crown on the head of Mary's son James, a child of a year old, and appointed her brother Murray regent of the kingdom. Mary effected her escape from confinement; but being defeated in a struggle to regain the crown, she fled to England, where she was detained in prison for eighteen years, partly on the ground of her having been pronounced by the English courts an accomplice in the murder of Darnley, and partly because she refused compliance with the demands of Elizabeth, to renounce her pretensions to the

English crown, and break off all communication with the Romanist party in that country as well as with the court of Spain, to punish the murderers of Darnley, never to marry without the consent of Elizabeth, and to permit her son to be educated in England. In the year 1587 she was beheaded, in consequence of her alleged participation in a conspiracy against the life of Elizabeth. During the minority of her son,

(102.) James VI. (1567—1603, in Scotland alone), who succeeded his mother in 1567, Scotland was governed by four regents in succession, all of whom, with one exception, died a violent death. During his own feeble administration the Presbyterians triumphed over the Episcopalians, notwithstanding the preference of the King for episcopacy. James, as the next heir-male to the English crown, was nominated to the succession by Queen Elizabeth, and consequently was the first sovereign who bore the title of King of Great Britain and Ireland. The complete union of the two kingdoms (with *one* parliament) was not effected until the year 1707.

## § 10. *Great Britain and Ireland under the first two Stuarts*, 1603—1649.

(103.) 1. James I. (1603—1625). The unfortunate personal peculiarities of this sovereign, his preference for the Scotch, his blind affection for unworthy favorites, such as the Duke of Buckingham, and the desire which he manifested to exercise an authority over the parliament as absolute as that of the mighty Tudors, excited the disgust of his English subjects; whilst his intolerant treatment of the Romanists provoked several members of that communion to engage in the Gunpowder Plot, the object of which was to blow up the King and parliament. Happily for the nation, this conspiracy was betrayed by an accomplice, and the machinations of the traitors defeated.

(104.) 2. Charles I. (1625—1649) quarrelled with his parliament respecting the imposition of taxes, the toleration granted to the Romanists, and the retention in office of his father's unpopular minister the Duke of

Buckingham. After two dissolutions, Charles, in order to procure funds for carrying on the war (in defence of the continental Protestants) against Austria, France, and Spain, was compelled to summon a third parliament, and give his assent to the "petition of right," which provided that no taxes should be levied without the consent of parliament, and secured personal liberty to the King's subjects. But as neither this concession nor the assassination of Buckingham satisfied the malcontents, the King dissolved his third parliament, and did not call another for eleven years. After the conclusion of peace with France and Spain, Charles, in direct contravention of the "petition of right," levied throughout the kingdom, on his own authority, a tax called ship-money, professedly to meet the expenses of fitting out a fleet. In Scotland, in consequence of an attempt to enforce the use of the Anglican ritual, "a solemn league and covenant" was formed, the avowed object of which was a general resistance to the King's proclamation. The intelligence of their preparations so alarmed Charles, that he immediately summoned the so-called "long parliament," and demanded a vote of money for carrying on war against the rebels. The parliament now required the dismissal of the King's ministers (Laud and Strafford, both of whom were afterwards executed), assumed the royal prerogative, expelled the Bishops from the Upper House, and joined the Scotch in their rebellion. The parliament army (in which Oliver Cromwell soon distinguished himself) obtained two victories over the ill-disciplined forces of the King, who sought an asylum among the Scotch, and was delivered up by them to the English parliament on his refusal to embrace puritanism. About this time (1647) began the disputes between the Puritans, who were most influential in parliament, and the Independents, who governed the army. The latter having obtained possession of the King's person, their leader, Cromwell, defeated the Scotch, who had invaded England for the purpose of rescuing him. It was now resolved to bring Charles to trial, and the Presbyterian members of the House of Commons, who opposed this treasonable proceeding, were all expelled; those who remained were called in derision

the "Rump-parliament." Disregarding the protest of the Upper House, this remnant of the House of Commons nominated a high court of justice (including Cromwell among its members), which condemned Charles I. to suffer death, as a "tyrant, murderer, traitor, and cause of all the blood that had been shed." On the 30th Jan. 1649, this sentence was carried into execution in front of Whitehall palace.

## § 11. *Italy.*

(105.) 1. *The Spanish Possessions.*—The political equipoise which had been established in the fifteenth century between the different states of Italy, was destroyed in the sixteenth by the preponderance obtained by Spain through her Italian conquests. To Sicily and Sardinia, which already belonged to Arragon, Naples was added in 1504 by Ferdinand the Catholic; and after the extinction of the house of Sforza, Milan was granted as a fief by Charles V. to his son Philip II.

(106.) 2. *The Duchies*, a. Savoy with Nice and Piedmont (Geneva also until 1536). *b.* Mantua (originally a marquisate (1432—1530), then raised to the rank of a duchy, and (1536) augmented by the addition of Montferrat after the extinction of its marquisate) was governed by the house of Gonzaga, and after the extinction of that line, and a war of succession which had lasted four years, was settled on Duke Charles of Nevers by the peace of Chierasco. *c.* Modĕna, with Reggio and Ferrara, under the house of Este (1288—1796). Ferrara, on the extinction of the legitimate line of Este, lapsed to its feudal sovereign the Pope. *d.* Parma and Piacenza, which belonged sometimes to France, sometimes to the states of the Church, were subject at a later period (1545) to the house of Farnese.

(107.) 3. *The Republics*, a. Venice (which possessed also the whole northeastern side of Upper Italy as far as the Adda (terra firma), Istria, the coasts of Dalmatia and Albania, several Neapolitan ports, the Ionian and many of the Greek islands, Candia and Cyprus) occupied during this period a prominent position among the states

of Italy; but her supremacy in the Adriatic and Mediterranean occasioned jealousies, and involved her in wars with the southern powers of Italy, which terminated in the loss of most of her continental possessions. Several of the Greek islands and Cyprus were also wrested from her by the Turks; and lastly, her commerce was ruined by the discovery of a passage by sea to the East Indies, and the conquest of Egypt by the Turks. *b.* Genoa, which belonged at first to Milan, and was twice conquered, together with that duchy, by the French, obtained her independence by means of a revolution effected with surprising suddenness by Andrew Doria. An aristocratic form of government was established, which lasted until the year 1797. A conspiracy, set on foot by Fiesco, Count of Lavagna, for the ruin of the Doria family and the overthrow of this constitution, miscarried in consequence of the sudden death of Fiesco, who was drowned in the harbor of Genoa. *c.* Lucca.

(108.) 4. *Tuscany* remained subject to the house of Medici, at first as a republic, then as a duchy (1531—1574), and finally as a grand duchy (1574—1737).

(109.) 5. The states of the Church were enlarged by the conquest of the republic of Bologna and the mark (margraviate) of Ancona, and the annexation of Ferrara.

§ 12. *Germany, from the abdication of Charles V. to the peace of Westphalia*, 1556—1648 (comp. § 3).

(110.) 3. Ferdinand I. (1556—1564),

King of Bohemia and Hungary in right of his wife (see page 21), and Roman King since 1531, was elected Emperor without a dissenting voice, it being merely required that he should swear to respect the resolutions passed by the diet of Augsburg. He reigned with prudence and moderation; but was unable to recover from France the three bishoprics in Lorraine, and was obliged, as the condition of an armistice with the Turks, to abandon to them all the territory of which they had taken possession in Hungary.

(111.) The disappointment occasioned by the failure of these attempts, and of his plan for the reconciliation of the

two confessions, by conceding to the laity the use of the cup in the Holy Eucharist, and permitting the marriage of priests, probably hastened his death. He was succeeded by his son

(112.) 4. Maximilian II. (1564—1576),

a mild and sagacious prince, who was persuaded by Zapolya's son to engage in a fresh Turkish war, which was terminated by an armistice, after the death of Solyman II. before the fortress of Sigeth (defended by Zriny). William of Grumbach, who had murdered the Bishop of Würzburg, was put to death by the Emperor with most of his followers. Maximilian was succeeded by his son

(113.) 5. Rudolph II. (1576—1612),

a feeble-minded sovereign, whose reign was distracted by the disputes of the Romanists, Lutherans, and Calvinists. The religious peace of Augsburg had failed to reconcile the contending parties, who were still further estranged by the decision of the Council of Trent, and by various untoward circumstances, such as the expulsion of the Protestants from Aix-la-Chapelle, where they had seized on the reins of government; the excommunication by the Pope of Gebhard, Elector of Cologne, who had gone over to Calvinism, and married the Countess Agnes of Mansfeld; the expulsion of a Protestant Bishop from Strasburg; and the placing the Protestant city of Donauwerth under the bann of the empire for obstructing the Romish worship. By the advice of the Elector Palatine, Frederick IV., several of the Protestant princes formed a Union (1608), the professed object of which was mutual protection.

(114.) To this "Union" the Romanist princes opposed a "League," headed by Duke Maximilian of Bavaria (1609); consequently, the representatives of the two branches of the house of Wittelsbach were opposed to one another as leaders of the antagonist parties,—the elder or Palatine line supporting the Union, and the younger or Bavarian the League. In Bohemia, where most of the

Utraquists[1] had joined the Lutheran communion, the Protestants compelled the Emperor to publish a Letter of Majesty, by which religious freedom was secured to the three estates of nobles, knights, and royal cities, with their vassals.

(115.) The death (without issue) of John William, Duke of Jülich (Juliers), Cleves, and Berg, was followed by a war of succession between the descendants of his sisters, the Elector John Sigismund, of Brandenburg, and the Count Palatine Wolfgang of Neuburg (1609). After raging eighteen years, this war was terminated by the convention of Düsseldorf, by which the territories of the late Duke were equally divided between the two claimants, Brandenburg receiving for his share Cleves and the counties of Mark and Ravensberg, and Neuburg obtaining Jülich, Berg, and the seignory of Ravenstein. In the reign of Rudolph's brother and successor

(116.) 6. Matthias (1612—1619)

began the thirty years' war (1618—1648), the commencement of which may be dated from an insurrection at Prague, occasioned by disputes respecting the erection of Utraquist churches, when two of the royal counsellors (Martinitz and Slavata) were thrown out of the windows of the senate-house by a tumultuous assemblage headed by Count Thurn.

A. *Bohemian-Palatine period.* 1618—1623.

(117.) The Bohemian Protestants, supported by the Union with an army under Count Ernest of Mansfeld, had already made themselves masters of the greater part of Bohemia, when Matthias died, and was succeeded (after the repulse of Count Thurn from Austria) by

(118.) 7. Ferdinand II., (1619—1637),

a grandson of Ferdinand I. Although this prince had already been two years King of Bohemia, the Protestant

[1] The Hussites, or Bohemian Brethren, called Utraquists because they partook of the Holy Eucharist "sub *utraque* forma" (in both kinds).

estates refused to recognize his election, and placed on the throne the Elector Palatine Frederick V., head of the Union and of the Calvinistic party in Germany. On the other hand, the Elector of Saxony, who disliked the spread of Calvinism in Bohemia, formed an alliance with the Emperor, whilst Maximilian of Bavaria (commander-in-chief of the League), after compelling the Protestant estates of Lower Austria to return to their allegiance, entered Bohemia, and utterly routed the army of Frederick (which was exhausted by a night-march) on the White Mountain, near Prague (8th November, 1620). Frederick, who had fled to Holland, was placed under the bann of the empire, and all his estates confiscated, Bohemia was subdued, the Letter of Majesty torn in pieces, the Protestants deprived of all their civil privileges, and their preachers banished.[2] The bann of the empire was carried into effect by the League, whose general, Tilly (an officer of Maximilian's), took possession of the territories of the exiled Elector on the Danube and Rhine, after defeating Ernest of Mansfeld and Christian of Brunswick. The vacant electorate was conferred on Maximilian (whose appointment gave the Romanists a majority in the electoral college), and Lusace on the Elector of Saxony. The Union had been dissolved since the year 1621. The valuable library collected by the Elector Palatine at Heidelberg, was presented by Maximilian to the Pope.[3]

### B. *Danish period*, 1625—1629.

(119.) Hostilities were recommenced by Christian IV., King of Denmark, who came forward as defender of his brother-in-law, Frederick V., and the Protestant cause, at the head of a considerable army, which he had levied in conjunction with England, Holland, and France. Meanwhile the Emperor, whose jealousy of Maximilian became daily more apparent, had found an able supporter in Al-

[2] It is calculated that no less than 30,000 families were forced to leave Bohemia at this time. They resorted, for the most part, to Saxony and Brandenburg.—S.

[3] This library, at the intercession of the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia, was restored to Heidelberg, in the year 1815.—S.

bert of Waldstein, or Wallenstein, Prince, and afterwards Duke, of Friedland, in Bohemia, who raised an army at his own expense, defeated Count Mansfeld at the bridge of Dessau, and followed him into Hungary. At the same time the arms of the League were victorious under Tilly, who defeated (1626) the Danish and Lower Saxon army commanded by Christian IV., near Lutter on the Barenberg, in the territory of Brunswick, and effected a junction with Wallenstein on his return from Hungary, for the purpose of making a combined attack on the territories of the King of Denmark. Holstein was conquered by the united forces of the two generals, and Schleswig and Jutland by Wallenstein alone: the two Dukes of Mecklenburg were expelled from their dominions for promising aid to the Danes, and the Duke of Pomerania forced to place his hitherto peaceful country at the disposal of Wallenstein. The strong fortress of Stralsund alone refused to receive an imperial garrison, and, with the assistance of Denmark and Sweden, repulsed the besiegers. In order to prevent a junction of the Swedes and Danes, a peace was concluded at Lübeck (1629) between the Emperor and the King of Denmark, on terms exceedingly favorable to the latter, who received back all the territories of which he had been deprived by Wallenstein and Tilly, on pledging himself never to become a party to any confederacy against the Emperor.

(120.) As a compensation for the expenses incurred in the war, the Elector of Bavaria received the Upper Palatinate, and Wallenstein the duchy of Mecklenburg. The Emperor, who considered this a favorable opportunity for the re-establishment of Romanism, at first in his hereditary dominions, and then throughout the empire, demanded (at the instance of the papal nuncio, and with the consent of the four Romanist Electors) the restoration of all ecclesiastical endowments which had been appropriated by the Protestants since the convention of Passau, (1552), viz. two archbishoprics (Magdeburg and Bremen), twelve bishoprics, and almost all the abbeys and monasteries of Northern Germany. At the same time he issued a decree that no sectaries should in future be tolerated except those who recognized the Confession of Augsburg.

This edict was carried into effect with great severity by Wallenstein, in conjunction with the troops of the League. The discontent excited by these proceedings was expressed by the estates of the empire, and especially by Maximilian (at a diet held by Ferdinand at Ratisbon, for the purpose of procuring the election of his eldest son as Roman King), so loudly and unequivocally as to compel the Emperor to dismiss Wallenstein from his service (September, 1630).

### C. *Swedish period*, 1630—1635.

(121.) The divided state of the Romanist party, and the vacillation of the Emperor, who still suspended the execution of the Restitution Edict, had given fresh courage to the Protestants, especially since the accession to their cause of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, with whom they had formerly entered into negotiations, and who was now ready to declare war against the Emperor, partly out of zeal for the Lutheran faith, and partly for reasons independent of his religious opinions; the expulsion, for instance, of his relatives, the Dukes of Mecklenburg, and the rejection of his mediation at the peace of Lübeck. Having formed an alliance with France, Gustavus Adolphus yielded to the solicitations of the German Protestants, and in the summer of 1630 landed on the coast of Pomerania, drove the Austrians out of that country, and advanced as far as the March of Brandenburg. Meanwhile Tilly (now commander-in-chief of the imperial forces), in conjunction with Pappenheim, invested the city of Magdeburg, which had made common cause with the Swedes. Gustavus Adolphus advanced to its relief, but before he could cross the Elbe Magdeburg was taken, sacked, and almost levelled with the ground (May 20, 1631).[4] Tilly now determined to secure Electoral Saxony, as the most likely means of arresting the progress of the Swedes; and the Electors, who had hitherto stood aloof,

[4] The savage and monstrous cruelty and outrage of the soldiery under Tilly, almost surpass belief. From this date all glory and good fortune deserted him, and his name was never pronounced without a malediction.—S.

placed themselves under the protection of Gustavus Adolphus. On the 7th September, 1631, Tilly was defeated by the united Swedish and Saxon army on the great plain near Leipzic. This victory annihilated the two formidable armies of the Imperialists and Leaguists, and neutralized at one blow all the advantages which the Emperor had obtained during the whole war, whilst to the mind of Gustavus Adolphus it suggested the ambitious design of proclaiming himself, under some form or other, head of the German empire, or at least of the Protestant portion of it. A plan of operations was now settled between the Conqueror and the Elector of Saxony, who was to attack the Emperor in his hereditary kingdom of Bohemia, whilst Gustavus Adolphus overran Western and Southern Germany, and destroyed the remnant of the League. In pursuance of this plan, Gustavus traversed Thuringia and Franconia as far as Mainz (Mayence), and then advanced on Bavaria, leaving his generals, with Duke Bernard of Saxe Weimar at their head, to complete his conquests on the Rhine.

(122.) On the frontier of Bavaria the passage of the Lech was contested by Tilly, who fell in the engagement.[5] Gustavus Adolphus then marched without interruption to Munich, having overrun the whole of the German empire except the hereditary dominions of the Emperor in Austria. Meanwhile Wallenstein had been persuaded to raise a fresh army of 40,000 men, with which he drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. Then he joined the Elector of Bavaria, and marched to Nürnberg, where the Swedish and Imperialist armies remained opposite one another for eleven weeks, each party hoping that the other would be compelled by want of provisions to abandon his position. At last Gustavus Adolphus, after an unsuccessful attack on Wallenstein's camp, returned to Bavaria, hoping that the enemy would follow him. Wallenstein also broke up his encampment; but, instead of proceeding southwards, he marched into Saxony, for the purpose of compelling the Elector to renounce his alliance with the Swedes, and in the following spring of cutting off the retreat of the Swe-

[5] He died twenty-five days after the battle.—S.

dish army by reconquering northern Germany, especially Mecklenburg. On receiving intelligence of this movement, Gustavus, at the earnest entreaty of the Elector, returned by forced marches to Saxony, and finding that Wallenstein's troops were now dispersed in winter quarters, and that a detachment under Pappenheim had been sent to the Rhine, he compelled the Imperialists to give him battle at Lützen (Nov. 16, 1632). In this engagement Gustavus Adolphus lost his life,[6] and the Swedish troops were already beginning to waver, when the intelligence of their King's death goaded them to such exertions as secured the victory, notwithstanding the arrival of reinforcements under Pappenheim, who was borne from the field mortally wounded. The prosecution of the war was then undertaken by the Swedish Chancellor Axel Oxenstiern, in conjunction with Cardinal Richelieu, whose sole object was the humiliation of Austria and the acquisition of the territory on the left bank of the Rhine. Thus the war assumed every day more unequivocally the character of a mere political rather than a religious contest.

(123.) Whilst Bernard of Saxe Weimar, who had taken the command of the Swedish army after the death of Gustavus Adolphus, employed himself in the conquest of Franconia, which had been granted him as a fief of the Swedish crown; and Gustavus Horn, one of the most distinguished pupils of the deceased King, made himself master of the greater part of Alsace, Wallenstein, instead of profiting by the confusion caused by the death of Gustavus Adolphus, remained inactive, and entered into negotiations with France for the crown of Bohemia. This conduct was the result, it would seem, of a conviction that the watchful jealousy of his enemies would prevent his receiving the grant of an hereditary principality from the Emperor. The apparent inconsistency of the policy pursued towards the German Protestants and Sweden, with whom he was sometimes at war, and sometimes engaged in negotiation (for the purpose, as he pretended, of preventing a junction of their forces), his backwardness in

[6] Not without suspicion of treachery at the hands of the Duke of Saxe-Lauenburg. See Schiller's "*Thirty Years' War.*"—S.

marching to the rescue of Bavaria, the negotiation with France, of which we have just spoken, and, lastly, the pretended conspiracy of Pilsen, furnished his enemies at the imperial court (among whom the Bavarian ambassador was the most conspicuous) with sufficient grounds of accusation. Without affording him an opportunity of being heard in his own defence, the Emperor removed Wallenstein from his command, and on the 25th February, 1634, he was assassinated at Eger by some of his own officers.[7] Wallenstein was succeeded in the command of the imperial forces by the Emperor's eldest son, Ferdinand, King of Hungary and Bohemia, with Gallas as his lieutenant. In conjunction with the Bavarian army under John von Werth, the new commander-in-chief ascended the Danube, and defeated the two Swedish generals at Nördlingen in Swabia. Bernard fled to the Rhine, Horn was taken prisoner, and Swabia, Franconia, and the Palatine were occupied by detachments of the imperial army. As little assistance could now be expected from their Swedish allies, the Protestants of south-western Germany were compelled to purchase the protection of France by the sacrifice of Upper Alsace.

### D. *Swedish French Period* (1634—1648).

(124.) Before the French could cross the Rhine (for the purpose of relieving Heidelberg, which was besieged by John von Werth), the condition of discreditable dependence on a foreign power in which the Protestants of Germany now found themselves, was fully recognized by the Elector of Saxony, who, in the spirit of a true patriot, set on foot such negotiations as terminated in the peace of Prague (1635). By the terms of this peace (which were gradually subscribed by all the Protestant princes, except the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel), the operation of the Restitution Edict was defered for forty years, and the Elector obtained possession of Lusace. In the following year, however (1636), the Saxons joined the Imperialists

[7] The question of Wallenstein's guilt or innocence is well discussed by Schiller. There is no *proof* of his treason, though great mystery covers the closing career of this wonderful man.—S.

under Count Hatzfeld, for the purpose of attacking Baner, commander of the Swedish forces in central and northern Germany, and were utterly defeated by that general near Wittstock in Brandenburg.

## Ferdinand III. (1637—1657.)

(125.) The passages of the Rhine having been left undefended by the removal of Gallas, who had been sent against Baner by the new Emperor, Bernard of Saxe Weimar recrossed the river from Alsace, and, after gaining a victory at Rheinfelden (where John von Werth was taken prisoner), obtained possession of several places on the right bank, all of which (after his death in 1639) again fell into the hands of the French, together with his army, the leaders of which had been corrupted by French gold. After Baner's death, the command in chief of the Swedish forces devolved on Torstenson, a brave but inferior general, who entered Silesia and Moravia in 1642, and, after permitting his lieutenant Wrangel to advance almost to the walls of Vienna, retraced his steps for the purpose of obtaining reinforcements, and defeated the Imperialists near Leipzic. The breaking out of a war between Denmark and Sweden recalled Torstenson from Germany; but after a short absence he re-entered the hereditary dominions of the Emperor, obtained a victory at Jankau in Bohemia (1645), and advanced a second time to Vienna, where he sustained so heavy a loss as compelled him to abandon all hopes of following up his victory. Soon after this reverse, his increasing infirmity compelled him to resign the command. Meanwhile the war was carried on, with various success, on the banks of the Rhine, by the united forces of France and Protestant Germany on the one side, and a Bavarian army on the other. Wrangel, who succeeded Torstenson in the command, twice joined Turenne, for the purpose of attacking Bavaria, but never advanced farther than Augsburg, where Königsmark quitted the main army, and marched into Bohemia. He had already made an impression on Prague, when the *peace of Westphalia*, after negotiations which had been protracted for five years, was concluded at

Münster and Osnabrück (Osnaburg) on the 24th October, 1648. The conditions of this peace, (which terminated the thirty years' war) were,

(126.) (a.) *With respect to ecclesiastical matters*, the confirmation of the Convention of Passau, and the Religious Peace of Augsburg, and the extension of their provisions to the Calvinist or "Reformed" Protestants. Ecclesiastical property to remain in the same hands as in the year 1624, and both parties to enjoy equal political rights.

(127.) *Political matters.* 1. France obtained as an indemnification the Austrian possessions in Alsace, the confirmation of her sovereignty over the bishoprics and cities of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and the right of garrisoning Philipsburg. 2. Sweden received a considerable portion of Pomerania (with the island of Rügen), Wismar, the secularized bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, and five millions of thalers (dollars), as an indemnification for expenses incurred in the war. 3. Brandenburg was recompensed for her sacrifices in Pomerania by being permitted to hold the secularized bishoprics of Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, and Camin, as four temporal principalities. 4. Mecklenburg received the bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg (on the same terms), as an indemnification for the loss of Wismar. 5. Hesse-Cassel, for the assistance rendered by her to Sweden during the war, obtained several places in Westphalia, and 600,000 thalers. 6. The son of the Elector Palatine, Frederick V., received the Lower Palatinate, with an understanding that the Upper Palatinate also should revert to the electoral line on the extinction of the Bavarian house. At the same time an eighth electorate was founded expressly for his benefit. For all other immovable property lost during the war, a general system of restitution was arranged. The independence of Switzerland and the united Netherlands was fully recognized by the German empire. With regard to political rights, no measures of legislation, war and peace, taxation, expenditure, defence, or alliance with foreign powers, were to be adopted by the Emperor without a vote of the princes of the empire assembled at a diet; the sovereignty of the princes within their own terri-

tories was secured to them; and they were allowed to conclude treaties of alliance with one another and with foreign powers, provided always that nothing were done against the Emperor and empire, the intestine tranquillity of Germany, or the peace of Westphalia.

## § 13. *Prussia.*

(128.) The Teutonic Order, which had governed Prussia since the year 1283, was entirely suppressed in that country, when the Grand Master, Albert of Brandenburg Anspach,[8] became a Lutheran, and received, at the diet of Cracow, in 1525, Eastern Prussia as a *temporal duchy*, to be held as a fief of Poland.

(129.) On the accession of his imbecile son Albert Frederick (1508—1618), the Electors of Brandenburg obtained first the co-investiture of Prussia, then the guardianship of the idiot Duke; and finally, the Elector, John Sigismund, after the death of his father-in-law (Albert Frederick), annexed the duchy to Brandenburg (in 1618).

## § 14. *Scandinavia.*

(130.) Since the Union of Calmar, in the year 1397, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden had formed one

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[8] 1. Frederick I., first Elector of Brandenburg, of the line of Hohenzollern, † 1440.

2. Frederick II., † 1471. — 3. Albert Achilles, † 1486.

4. John Cicero, † 1499. — Frederick, Margrave of Anspach and Baireuth.
5. Joachim I., † 1535.
6. Joachim II., † 1571.
7. John George, † 1598. — Albert, Grand master of the Teutonic Order, Duke of Prussia in 1525. — George, Margrave of Anspach.
8. Joachim Frederick, † 1608. Administrator in Prussia, 1605.
9. John Sigismund, Administrator, and (in 1618) Duke of Prussia, mar. Ann, heiress of Jülich, Cleves, and Berg. — Albert Frederick (of weak intellect), mar. Mary Eleanor, daughter of the Duke of Jülich, Cleves, and Berg.

Ann, mar. John Sigismund.

kingdom; but the kings chosen by the Danes from the *house of Oldenburg* were not acknowledged in Sweden until Christian II. enforced their recognition in 1520, and endeavored to confirm his authority by a cruel slaughter of his enemies at Stockholm. Gustavus Vasa, who had escaped this massacre, placed himself, after a succession of romantic adventures, at the head of an army of Dalecarlians, declared war against the Danes, was elected Administrator, and afterwards King (in 1523), and delivered Sweden from the Danish yoke.

(131.) 1. The unbridled ambition of the house of Oldenburg occasioned also the loss of Denmark[9] (which included Norway, the South of Sweden, Gothland [until 1645], and Iceland), to the Duke of Holstein and Schleswig (Frederick I.). For the introduction of the Reformation, see p. 14. For Christian's part in the thirty years' war, p. 56.

2. Sweden under the house of Vasa, 1523—1654.

(132.) Gustavus I. (Vasa) introduced the Reformation into Sweden with considerable tact and circumspection; but here, as elsewhere, the change was accompanied by acts of unjust severity, especially towards the clergy, whose immense wealth was confiscated to supply the deficiencies of the royal exchequer. The repeated declarations of the King that he wished to abdicate, induced the estates to grant all his demands, and even to settle the crown upon himself and his descendants. Gustavus created the nucleus of a naval force, and encouraged the extension of Swedish commerce. Both these objects were still further promoted by his successor Eric XIV. This sovereign was subject to periodical fits of insanity, on account of which he was placed under restraint by his brothers, deposed, with consent of the estates of his kingdom, and poisoned in prison. His next descendant but one, Sigismund, King of Poland, was educated in the faith of the Church of Rome, and in consequence was deposed

[9] Danish Kings: Christian II. deposed in 1523. Frederick I. 1523—1533. Christian III. 1533—1559. Frederick II. 1559—1588. Christian IV. 1588—1648.

soon after his coronation, through the intrigues of his uncle, Charles, Duke of Sudermania, who was appointed Administrator of the kingdom, and, after completing the work of the Reformation in Sweden, ascended the throne as Charles IX. His son,

(133.) Gustavus II. (Adolphus), 1611—1632,

found his kingdom distracted by intestine commotions, and involved in three foreign wars (with Denmark, Poland, and Russia). A peace was concluded with the Danes, who restored all the territory taken from Sweden in the war, Gustavus on his part consenting to pay an indemnification of a million thalers. Russia, after one campaign, was driven from the Baltic. For his German expedition and death at Lützen, see p. 60. He was succeeded by his daughter Christina, who commenced her reign under the guardianship of the Chancellor Axel Oxenstiern and the Council of State. Whilst the young queen, who possessed extraordinary abilities, was receiving a learned education in obedience to her father's injunctions, the war was continued in Germany, and hostilities were recommenced against the Danes, who had manifested considerable jealousy of Sweden on account of her recent successes. Both these wars were terminated, as soon as Christina herself assumed the reins of government, under circumstances very advantageous to Sweden. The period of tranquillity which ensued was favorable to the extension of commerce and the cultivation of the arts and sciences; but the literary tastes of the Queen were soon found to be inconsistent with the conscientious discharge of her political duties; and complaints of the time and treasure squandered on unworthy favorites became so general, that Christina, in 1654, abdicated in favor of her cousin Charles Gustavus, Count Palatine of Zweibrücken. After her abdication, Christina became a Romanist, and resided generally at Rome. She made an ineffectual attempt to resume her crown after the death of her cousin, and twice revisited Sweden for that purpose, and also became a candidate for the crown of Poland, but with no better success. She died at Rome in 1689.

## § 15. *Poland.*

### A. Under the Jagellones.

(134.) Under the last Jagellones, Poland, with Lithuania and Western Prussia, became the most important state of Eastern Europe, and, by the addition of Masovia and Livonia, extended its limits from the Baltic to the Black Sea, and almost from the Oder to the Don. But, amidst all this apparent prosperity, there existed an element of dissolution in the ambition of the nobles, who continued to encroach on the prerogatives of the King as well as the rights of the citizens and peasants, until at length they extorted from the last of the Jagellones the privilege of electing their King, and imposing conditions on him (pacta conventa).

### B. Poland an elective monarchy (1572—1791).

(135.) After the extinction of the Jagellones, the nobles, now the only powerful body in the state, elected Henry of Anjou, who quitted Poland in the following year for the purpose of ascending the throne of France, vacant by the death of his brother Charles IX. He was succeeded by Stephen Bathōri, Prince of Transylvania, who was followed by three kings of the house of Vasa (1587—1669), Sigismund III. of Sweden, Wladislaw IV., and John (II.) Casimir, whose elevation to the throne of Poland, instead of uniting, as was intended, the two great northern kingdoms, involved the country in a long war with Sweden, which was terminated in 1660 by the peace of Oliva, by which Livonia was ceded to Sweden, and Prussia recognized as a sovereign power. The nominal supremacy of Poland over the Moldau had been lost since the year 1616.

## § 16 *Russia.*

(136.) After her liberation from the Mongolic yoke, Russia advanced rapidly in power and civilization under the last rulers of the house of Ruric. Casan, the kingdom of Astrachan, and the countries of the Caucasus and Siberia were added to her territories by conquest; German

handicraftsmen, miners, artists, and learned men were introduced; the corps of tirailleurs (Strelitzes) established, and a commercial treaty concluded with England. But, after the extinction of the race of Ruric in 1598, the country was distracted by a disputed succession which lasted fifteen years, and by foreign wars, in which Poland and Sweden reconquered many of the territories which they had formerly lost. In the year 1613, the throne became hereditary in the family of Romanow (a branch of the house of Ruric), who reigned with absolute authority. Peace with Poland and Sweden was purchased by the renunciation of all the claims of Russia to Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia.

### § 17. *The Ottoman or Osmanic Empire.*

(137.) Extent of the empire in 1500.—All the continent, from the Ionian Sea to the Euphrates, in the north to the Danube, and on the other side of the Danube Bessarabia; some islands of the Archipelago, and the southern coast of the Crimea. To this territory, Selim I., during his short reign (1512—1520), added by conquest Armenia, Mesopotamia, Palestine, and Egypt. But the Turkish power attained its highest elevation under Solyman II. (1520—1566), surnamed the Magnificent, the most distinguished of all the Osmanic sultans, whose fleets and armies were indebted for their victories to the reckless courage rather than the skill of their commanders. Their first conquest was the island of Rhodes, which was garrisoned by the Knights of St. John, who capitulated after an obstinate defence, during which 40,000 Turks were killed, and the town itself was laid in ashes. The Knights then retired to Malta, which was placed at their disposal by the Emperor Charles V. Solyman visited Hungary six times: 1. For the sake of conquest and plunder. After the defeat and death of King Lewis at Mohacz, the whole of Hungary seemed to be at the disposal of the conqueror, when he was suddenly recalled by the intelligence of an outbreak in his Asiatic provinces. Second and third times as an ally of Zapolya (comp. page 25). Siege of Vienna; loss of 80,000 men. 4. On the fourth

occasion Solyman compelled King Ferdinand to cede a portion of Hungary and pay a yearly tribute. Fifth and sixth times, as an ally of Zapolya's son (John Sigismund), prince of Transylvania. In his sixth campaign, Solyman died during the siege of Sigeth. Between these several campaigns occurred, 1. The conquest of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, by the Corsair Hayraddin Barbarossa. Tunis was afterwards recaptured by Charles V. (see page 26). 2. The seizure of the Venetian possessions in the Morea, and of most of their settlements in the Archipelago. 3. The conquest of Yemen in Southern Arabia. 4. Two wars with Persia, which ended in the conquest of Georgia. 5. Descents on the coasts of Spain and Italy, for the purpose of weakening the power of Charles V. during the war with France. 6. An unsuccessful attack on Malta. By such means as these, Solyman extended his empire from Algiers and the Adriatic Sea to the country beyond the Tigris (with the exception of a few islands), and from the Carpathian Mountains, the Dniester, and the mouth of the Don, to Southern Egypt and Arabia. The unwearied energy of his character was displayed in peace no less than in war: order and security were re-established throughout his dominions, the courts of justice again placed on a respectable footing, military discipline improved, a system of finance introduced, and even the arts and sciences protected and encouraged. The heterogeneous elements of which the empire was composed were again disunited under his successors, whose effeminacy rendered them mere puppets in the hands of the Janissaries. Cyprus, it is true, was wrested from the Venetians; but the naval power of Turkey was annihilated in 1571 in the battle of Lepanto; most of their strongholds in Hungary were lost, and an almost perpetual, though not disastrous, war with Persia, prevented any further military operations in Europe.

### § 18. *Religion, Arts, Sciences, &c., during the First Period.*

(138.) 1. The Church (Romish).

*a.* The credit of *propagating Christianity* among the heathen during this period, especially in Hindostan, Thi-

bet, China, Japan, and the newly-discovered continent of America, is chiefly due to the religious orders; among whom the Jesuits (Francis Xavier and others) were the most conspicuous for their zeal, courage, and self-denial. For the promotion of such missions, Pope Gregory XV. established at Rome, in 1622, the "Congregation for the propagation of the Faith," to which Urban VIII. united the "Collegium de propaganda Fide," where missionaries were educated for all parts of the globe. Among the American missions, we may especially notice the state of Paraguay, which was founded and governed by the Jesuits.[1]

(139.) b. *The establishment of new orders and congregations* (the Theatines, Capuchins, Ursulines, &c.), and the partial reformation of those which already existed, were productive of some benefit, as regarded the improvement of monastic discipline, but could not check the progress of the Reformation, or restore to the Church of Rome the influence which she had lost. To attain this object, a Spanish nobleman, named Ignatius Loyola, founded, in 1540 (in Guipuscoa), a brotherhood, called the Society of Jesus, under the sanction of Pope Paul III., who conferred several important privileges on the order. In addition to the three usual vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, the Jesuits promised to undertake the work of conversion in any country to which the Pope might think fit to send them as missionaries. They were also employed as preachers, catechists, and especially as instructors of youth.

(140.) The principal or "General" of the order, who resided at Rome, was chosen for life, and exercised uncontrolled authority over the members. In spite of opposition, this order spread (until the middle of the eighteenth century) over all the Romanist countries of Europe, as well as over Spanish America, the Philippine Islands, and China, and eventually comprehended thirty-nine "Provinces."

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[1] The efforts of Protestants in the great missionary field, "the world," are, with slight and unimportant exceptions, subsequent to the period here spoken of.—S.

(141.) c. *Dogmatic disputes* were occasioned by the publication (by Jansenius, a professor of Louvain) of five theses on the subject of grace. These doctrines were defended by the disciples of Jansenius, and condemned by the Pope as heretical.

(142.) 2. Political constitution. In the Germanic kingdoms the development of absolute monarchy and the fall of the aristocracy.

(143.) a. *In France* this result was produced by the appropriation of the crown fiefs, the dissolution of the general assembly (états-généraux), and the grant of unlimited powers to the ministers of the crown. b. *In Spain*, by the Inquisition, the assumption by the crown of the grand mastership of the three orders of chivalry, the treasures of the new world, the dismissal of the general Cortes, and the despotism of Philip II. c. *In Germany* we must ascribe the establishment of absolutism, not to the Emperor, whose powers were limited by the compact entered into at his election, but to individual princes, whose supremacy within their own territories was secured to them by the peace of Westphalia. d. *In most of the Protestant countries* the sovereigns were rendered independent of their subjects by the possession of property which had formerly belonged to the Church. In England, Denmark, and Sweden, great additional powers were given to the sovereign by the union in his person of the supreme ecclesiastical and civil authorities. In Sweden, moreover, the cause of absolutism was promoted by the establishment of an hereditary instead of an elective monarchy, and generally throughout Europe by the introduction of standing armies, a regular system of taxation, and legislation without the sanction or advice of the nobles.

(144.) In Poland alone, since the establishment of an elective monarchy, the nobles exercised a power similar to that possessed in England by the House of Commons in the reign of Charles I. In Italy, Switzerland, and the Netherlands, there existed republican constitutions; in Hungary the system was representative, and in Russia and Turkey the government was an unmixed despotism.

(145.) 3. Legislation. Since the abolition of the Faustrecht (right of the strong hand), a more regular sys-

tem of legislation had been introduced; but except in England, which retained its ancient institution of trial by jury, the laws were administered, not by the community, but by lawyers nominated by the sovereign. The proceedings were always in writing, and the punishments inflicted were ferociously severe. The foundation of most of their codes was the Roman law. The Spanish Inquisition, and the prosecutions for witchcraft, carried on in Germany by virtue of a penal ordinance called the "Witch-hammer," delivered over thousands of innocent persons to torture or the stake.

(146.) 4. War. The system of warfare was considerably modified by the introduction of standing armies, the use of muskets and heavy ordnance (which had become more and more general, especially since the days of Gustavus Adolphus), the construction of regular fortifications, particularly in the Netherlands, the establishment of light cavalry, the introduction of an extended instead of a deep order of battle, and the formation in many countries of a formidable marine.

(147.) 5. In the sciences a system of more profound, as well as more active investigation, was created by the rapid spread of the art of printing, the continual establishment of new universities (in Germany, Wittenberg, Frankfort on the Oder, Marburg, Königsberg, Jena, Helmstädt, Giessen, and Strasburg), and schools (the Jesuit colleges, schools established by princes, &c.), and the inquiries set on foot by the Reformers and their opponents.

(148.) *a.* The groundwork of a learned education was the *study of classical literature*, which imparted its tone, more or less, to all the sciences. This study, which had been revived in Italy during the preceding period, extended first to France, where it was cultivated, partly as an independent science (by the able critic and interpreter Lambinus (†1572); the distinguished Latin scholar Murētus (1585); the learned printers, Robert and his son Henry Stephanus [*Etienne*, Ang. *Stephens*] (Thesaurus Linguæ Græcæ); the philosopher Julius Cæsar Scaliger, and his son, the chronologist and philologist, Jos. Scaliger (†1609); the profound critic and translator

Casaubon (†1614); the great linguist Salmasius (†1653), and many others, partly as the handmaid of theology and jurisprudence. It was not without influence on the national literature, especially on tragical composition. In Germany, the most renowned "Humanists" were Reuchlin (†1522), who revived the study of Hebrew literature; Erasmus of Rotterdam (†1536), and a distinguished Greek scholar; Melancthon (†1560); Freinsheim (†1660), &c. But the great seat of classical learning was Holland, where Justus Lipsius (†1606), Hugo Grotius (1645), Gerh. Vossius (†1649), Daniel Heinsius (†1655), and his son Nic. Heinsius (†1681) distinguished themselves as etymologists, grammarians, and critics.

(149.) *b.* This revival of the study of classical antiquity had an influence also on *philosophy*, which was now elevated from the rank of a mere handmaid of theology, to its proper station as an independent science. The scholastic philosophy of the middle ages was, in a great measure, supplanted by the study of Plato, and especially of Aristotle, which had been recently revived, and by the mystic philosophy, the chief professor of which was the celebrated physician and chemist Philip Bombast von Hohenheim (†1541), who calls himself in his (theosophic) writings Theophrastus Paracelsus. The struggle was maintained during the first half of the seventeenth century, and produced three new schools.—1. Those who believed, with the English philosopher, Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam (†1626), that the source of all philosophy was to be found in *experience* (de Dignitate et Augmentis Scientiarum; Novum Organum); or, 2, in the *intellect*, as Descartes (Cartesius, †1650—cogito, ergo sum); or, 3, *in divine revelation*, general or particular, confirmed by signs and miracles. This was the doctrine of the Theosophists, who thought that they received direct illumination from the Almighty. Their leader was a cobbler of Görlitz, named Jacob Böhme (†1624).

(150.) c. *The physical sciences* underwent a great revolution. Nicholas Copernicus (of Thorn, †1543) discovered that the sun remained immovable in the centre of the planetary system, the earth revolving round it and round its own axis. John Keppler (†1630) discovered

the laws which regulate the revolutions of the planets, and the relations which their respective distances bear to the time occupied in their course round the sun. His contemporary Galileo Galilei (of Pisa, †1642) discovered the laws of gravitation and of the pendulum, improved the telescope, which had been invented some years before in Holland (by Jansen? or Lippersey?) defended the Copernican system, and became the founder of a new system of natural philosophy. His pupil Torricelli (†1647) invented the barometer. Botany, zoology, and physiology began also to be studied. Mathematics were the groundwork of the physical sciences. Pope Gregory XIII. undertook the reformation of the Julian calendar, which, by erroneously making the year consist of 365 days and six entire hours, had caused a difference of ten days between the vulgar reckoning and the actual position of the sun.[1]

(151.) d. *Political science* found able expounders in Nic. Macchiavelli (1527, Principe), Hugo Grotius (de Jure Belli et Pacis), and Thomas Hobbes (†1679, de Cive, Leviathan).

(152.) e. *History.* Whilst the method of treating universal history remained still in its infancy, on account of the singular practice which prevailed for more than a century of dividing its subject-matter according to the four great monarchies—the Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Romano-German—much had been effected in the department of particular history by Macchiavelli (Storie Florentine), Paolo Sarpi (Storia del Concilio Tridentino), Johannes Sleidanus (de Statu Religionis et Reipublicæ sub Carolo V.), de Thou (Historia sui Temporis). Memoirs also began to be written during this period (de Commines, Sully), and political journals to be published (the earliest at Venice, in manuscript in 1536); the English Mercury (the first printed newspaper) in 1588; the Frankfort Journal in 1615; the Gazette de France in 1631. The foundation of *literary history* was laid by

[1] He had observed that the vernal equinox, which in the year 325 was on the 21st March, was now ten days earlier. This alteration of the style was not adopted in England until the year 1752, when eleven days were left out between the 2nd and 14th September.

Conrad Gessner (Biblioth. Univ.), of *chronology* by Jos. Scaliger (de Emendatione Temporum), and of *numismatics* by the two Stradas.

(153.) 6. Literature. Poetry was cultivated during this period most successfully in Southern Europe. In Italy, where princes and popes vied with one another in their patronage of genius, Epic poetry appeared in its most perfect form in the fantastic "Orlando Furioso" of Ariosto (†1533), and the romantic "Gerusalemme Liberata" of Torquato Tasso (†1595). Extraordinary richness of imagination is displayed in the great Epic (Os Lusiadas) of the Portuguese poet, Luis de Camoëns (†1579), on the subject of Vasco de Gama's voyage. In Spain we find Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra (†1616), who produced the famous romance of "Don Quixote de la Mancha," a burlesque representation of the worn-out chivalry of that country; Lope de Vega (†1636), the most prolific of dramatic writers, and his more polished successor Calderon de la Barca (†1687), the author of a great number of pieces composed for the feast of Corpus Christi, and of several comedies. In France, François Rabelais (†1553) exhibited in his half-philosophical, half-satirical romance of "Gargantua and Pantagruel," a masterly caricature of his own times; and Malherbe (†1628) prepared the way, by his lyrical compositions, for the transition from the romantic to the modern classical school of poetry. England produced, in the person of William Shakspeare (1564—1616), the greatest dramatic poet that the world ever saw. In Germany the Epic was almost entirely lost; for we find nothing in that class of poetry except a sort of "*Beast-Epic*," introduced, for the second time, at the commencement of this period, in the form of a Low German translation of "Reineke Fuchs" (Reynard the Fox). The *drama* was more successfully cultivated by a shoemaker of Nürnberg [Nuremberg] named Hans Sachs (1494—1576). During this period the popular ballad (Vokslied) attained its highest degree of excellence, and gradually declined. The most remarkable *novelties* in German literature were: *a.* The introduction by Luther of the *Evangelical Church Songs.* b. *Comic* and *satirical*

poetry, in an epic as well as a didactic form (Brandt's "Ship of Fools," and many other pieces of the same character). *c.* The creation by Luther in his prose works, especially his translation of the Bible, of a new High German language, compounded of the various High German dialects previously in use. With the establishment of the first Silesian poetical school (by Opitz), 1624, began the corruption of the language by the introduction of foreign words,—a practice which continued, especially in poetry, for more than a century (1624—1730). To Opitz, however, belongs the credit of having invented a regular system of prosody.

(154.) 7. Art. *a.* Ever since the 15th century the modern school of *architecture* in Italy had been engaged in restoring the ancient Roman style, from the specimens which still existed, or from the descriptions of Vitruvius. The two earliest schools of architecture, the Florentine and Venetian, had been chiefly employed in the erection of palaces; but when Rome became the centre of Italian architecture, church-building assumed a prominent position. The most distinguished professors were Bramante (†1514), who commenced the building of St. Peter's at Rome, and Michael Angelo Buonarotti (†1563), who revived Bramante's plan of an immense cupola over a Greek cross. He was also celebrated as a *sculptor*, and chief of the Florentine school of *painting*. From Italy the Italian style found its way into other countries, and gradually displaced the Gothic.

(155.) *b.* The most distinguished *sculptors* were found at Florence and Venice, where the classical models of antiquity were diligently studied and copied with great success. Naples was also celebrated as a school of sculpture. Benvenuto Cellini was renowned as a worker in metals (†1572).

(156.) c. *Painting* attained its highest degree of excellence during this period. *aa.* In Italy, where the most distinguished professors were chiefs of the schools: viz. Raphael Sanzio d'Urbino (1483—1520) of the Roman; Michael Angelo Buonarotti of the Florentine; Tiziano [Titian] (1477—1576) of the Venetian; Alle-

gri da Corregio (†1534) of the Lombard, which was first brought into notice by Leonardo da Vinci (†1519). To these names we may add Giulio Romano, Paolo Veronese, the three Caracci, Guido Reni, and Domenichino. *bb.* In Germany we have Albert Dürer (†1528), Lucas Kranach (†1553), and Hans Holbein (†1554). *cc.* In the Netherlands, especially in Brabant, Peter Paul Rubens (born at Cologne, 1577, †at Antwerp, 1640), and his pupil Antony van Dyk [Vandyke] (†1611).

(157.) d. *Music.* The Flemish school, which flourished at the commencement of this period, was thrown into the shade by Palestrina, the inventor of a new style of Church music. The Roman school of which he was the founder, produced also Allegri (composer of the famous "Miserere") and Carissimi. The establishment of an opera at Florence in the 16th century contributed to the formation of a better style of vocal as well as instrumental music.

(158.) 8. Commerce and manufactures. The discovery of America, and of a passage by sea to the East Indies, occasioned a complete revolution in the commerce of the world, which became *maritime instead of overland.* Its great highway was now the Atlantic Ocean; and one consequence of this change was, that the countries of Western Europe,—Spain and Portugal in the first instance, then England and Holland, and lastly France,—established a trade at the expense of the Venetians and of the German Hansa, which gradually fell into decay, and in the year 1630 dissolved itself, with the exception of three towns. The establishment of colonies greatly facilitated the operations of commercial enterprise. Europe now exported largely to the East and West Indies, and to America, receiving in return the products of those countries. The East Indian trade was at first exclusively in the hands of the Portuguese, partly in the shape of an agency or commission business in India itself, partly as a direct trade between that country and Portugal. Lisbon became the grand depôt for Indian produce (pepper and other spices, woollen and silk wares, pearls, &c.). By the union of Portugal with

Spain, the latter country became possessed of the foreign and colonial trade of both hemispheres, which was soon shared by the Dutch commercial companies. Amsterdam now raised itself to the position of the first commercial city in the world; whilst at the same time the Dutch wrested from the Hanse towns the privilege which they had hitherto monopolized of conducting the commission trade of Europe. The herring and whale fisheries also employed nearly half a million of men.

(159.) *Circumstances favorable to trade.* The opening of fairs at Leipzic, Brunswick, &c.: the establishment of Assurances (the first at Florence); construction of canals and chaussées (first in France); Exchanges (at Antwerp, London and Amsterdam), and Banks; regulation of the post-offices (in Germany by the family of Tour and Taxis); commercial treaties (between Russia and England). *New products:*—tobacco, potatoes, coffee, tea, porcelain. *New trade*, in negro slaves.

(160.) *Manufacturing industry.* The silk and cloth manufactures flourished in Spain until the expulsion of the Moors in the reign of Philip III.—Cloth and linen manufactures in the Netherlands.—Commencement of silk-weaving at Tours and Lyons, afterwards (about 1625) in England.—Lace-making in the Saxon Erzgebirge.—Invention of watches (Nuremberg eggs as they were called) by Peter Hele of Nuremberg; of the spinning-wheel by Jörgens of Brunswick, and of the stocking-loom by William Lee of Cambridge.

## Second Period.

From the peace of Westphalia to the French Revolution. 1648—1789.

1. To the Spanish war of succession, the northern war, and the elevation of Prussia into a kingdom.

### § 19. *France under Louis XIV.*

A. Louis XIV. under the guardianship of Mazarin, 1643—1661.

(161.) The guardianship of Louis XIV., who was only five years old when his father died, was conferred by the parliament of France on his mother Anne of Spain; but the actual functions of government were discharged by Cardinal Mazarin, a minister recommended by Richelieu. The unpopularity of this minister, who from the first had been disliked as a foreigner, was increased by a dispute with the parliament respecting the imposition of some fresh taxes for the purpose of carrying on the war with Germany and Spain (victories of the young Condé, Duke of Enghien, at Rocroi and Lens), by which he hoped to withdraw public attention from the defects of his domestic administration. The parliament having rendered itself obnoxious to the court by the pertinacity with which it demanded a constitution, many members were arrested by command of the Queen, who was encouraged to this act by the intelligence of a fresh victory gained by Condé near Lens. But before he could reach Paris the populace (whose favor the parliament had conciliated) had raised barricades in the streets (1648), liberated the prisoners, established the Fronde (as the party opposed to the court was called), and, headed by the coadjutor of the Archbishop of Paris, afterwards Cardinal Retz, had declared war against the Queen Mother and Mazarin, who quitted Paris, but returned on the re-establishment of

peace by the Prince of Condé. The systematic attempts of this general to concentrate in his own person all the functions of government, occasioned his arrest by Mazarin, who was soon compelled by the populace to liberate his prisoner, and himself seek safety in exile.

(162.) Condé now formed an alliance with the King of Spain, and declared war against his master, who had recently attained his majority. After a bloody but indecisive skirmish in the Faubourg St. Antoine, between Condé and the royal troops commanded by Turenne, the former quitted Paris, was placed under the bann of the kingdom, and sought an asylum in Spain, whilst Mazarin returned to France and resumed his functions as minister.

(163.) For an account of the termination of the war by the peace of Westphalia, and the territories acquired by the different powers, see page 53.

(164.) The *war with Spain*, which had broken out during the period of the thirty years' war, was terminated (after the defeat of the Spanish army under Condé by Turenne at Dunkirk in 1658), by the peace of the Pyrenees, negotiated by Mazarin himself. By this peace France acquired the country of Rousillon, the Belgian district of Artois, and several cities with their territories in Flanders, Hennegau, and Luxembourg. Condé was re-established in the enjoyment of his estates and dignities, and Louis XIV. married Philip the Fourth's eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, who formally renounced for herself and heirs all claims to the Spanish crown.

(165.) Mazarin died in 1661, leaving behind him an enormous property (forty millions of livres), and Louis XIV. at once declared his intention of carrying on the government without the assistance of a minister.

### B. Preponderance of France in Europe during the administration of Louis XIV., 1661—1715.

(166.) The attempts of Louis were directed, 1. *To*

*the establishment of absolute sovereignty at home* (l'état c'est moi). In pursuance of this object he governed without a prime minister for fifty-four years, never convoked either the estates of the kingdom or the provincial estates (except in the frontier provinces of Languedoc and Britany), allowed the highest offices of state to remain vacant (Prime Minister, Constable, Grand Admiral), or placed them in commission, and attached the nobles to his person by conferring on them profitable offices, or titles and orders, to which the rigid etiquette of the court attached the highest importance. Even in ecclesiastical matters he endeavored to establish an authority independent of the Pope, by the publication of the four Articles of the Gallican Church, which, however, fell into disuse before the expiration of ten years. 2. *To the maintenance of his rank as the first sovereign of Europe, and the establishment of a sort of dictatorship throughout that quarter of the globe.* This end was attained, *a.* through the weakness of the neighboring states, and the decline of the house of Hapsburg since the peace of Westphalia and of the Pyrenees. Although his endeavors to obtain the imperial crown were unsuccessful, he was enabled, by means of the so-called Rhenish confederacy, which was often renewed, to exercise his authority as protector over a great part of Germany. *b.* By the influence of French civilization. *c.* By the administration of the great Colbert, who had been appointed, on the recommendation of Mazarin, Controller-General of the Finances, which had been in a disordered state since the dismissal of Sully (1661—1683). Notwithstanding the expensive wars in which Louis engaged, and the sums squandered on buildings, fêtes, mistresses, &c., the condition of the exchequer improved under Colbert's administration; industry was aroused and encouraged; existing colonies were treated with consideration; new settlements established, and commercial companies formed for the East and West India trade. But this improvement was in a great measure effected by the imposition of fresh taxes, by monopolies, and by the so-called "commercial system" of Colbert; and the sums thus raised were expended for the most part in the gratification of the King's ambition.

Colbert constructed the canal of Languedoc, embellished Paris, founded several academies for the arts and sciences, patronized distinguished scholars, placed the courts of justice and the police on a more efficient footing, and, during the period of his service as minister of marine, established a respectable navy. *d.* By the good fortune which attended the arms of France under a succession of distinguished commanders (Turenne, Condé, Luxembourg, Catinat, Villars, Vendôme, Vauban), and under the direction of such an able minister of war as Louvois (†1691), who involved the King in several aggressive wars, for the purpose of proving, as it would seem, how indispensable his services were.

(167.) *First war of spoliation against the Spanish Netherlands* (1666—1668). After the death of his father-in-law, Philip IV. of Spain, Louis XIV., as a set-off against his wife's renunciation of her claims to the Spanish crown, brought forward a law which existed in some of the Belgian provinces, by which the daughters of the first marriage inherited, to the exclusion of sons of the second marriage, and on the strength of this law laid claim to the Netherlands, conquered Flanders and Hennegau, and took possession of the free country of Burgundy. Meanwhile, however, England and Holland, in order to prevent the Netherlands becoming a province of France, had formed, in conjunction with Sweden, and by the intervention of the Dutch pensionary[1] de Witt, a triple alliance, which compelled Louis XIV. to conclude the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668, and to content himself with retaining the places which he had already conquered in Flanders.

(168.) *Second war of spoliation against Holland* (1672—1678). In order to avenge himself on the Dutch for the share which they had taken in the formation of the triple alliance, and at the same time to extort from them a reversal of the decree by which the importation of French merchandise into Holland was prohibited, Louis

[1] This was the title of the Prime Minister of Holland. He held office for the term of five years, and was capable of re-election.—S.

gained over their allies the English and Swedes (as well as Cologne and Münster, for the purpose of annoying the Dutch on their eastern frontier), invaded Holland, which at that time was distracted by party struggles, and was only restrained from conquering the whole country by the opening of the sluices and the consequent submersion of the land, whilst at the same time a tremendous storm, accompanied with an extraordinary ebb tide, prevented the English and French sailors (after a victory at sea) from reaching the shore. Assistance was now promised to the Dutch republic by the great Elector, Frederick William of Brandenburg (through the influence of his nephew, the Prince of Orange), who concluded an alliance with the Emperor, and subsequently with Spain; so that France was compelled to maintain a war on three of her frontiers at once. The King of England, having obtained the elevation of his nephew the Prince of Orange to the dignity of Stattholder of Holland, and being unable to obtain any more subsidies from his parliament, concluded a separate peace with the Netherlands (as well as with Cologne and Münster). Louis XIV. was now forced to act on the defensive: a battle was fought (near Senef), without any decisive result, between the French army under Condé and William III. of Orange, whilst Turenne, who had manfully opposed the imperial general Montecuculi on the Upper Rhine, was slain in the battle of Sasbach. An attempt on the part of the Swedes to effect a diversion, by invading the territories of the great Elector from the side of Pomerania, was successful, in so far as it compelled his return from the Upper Rhine; but on the 18th June, 1675, they were defeated at Fehrbellin, and lost Pomerania. About the same time the French fleet was defeated by the united fleets of Holland and Spain under de Ruyter. These disasters compelled Louis to conclude the peace of Nimeguen in 1678, by which France restored to Holland all the places which she had taken in the war, receiving in return fourteen partly fortified places in Flanders, with Hennegau and the free country of Burgundy (Franche-comté, which had been hitherto occupied by Spain as a part of the Burgundian circle under German supremacy), and of the German empire Freiburg and

Hüningen. The Elector of Brandenburg, being now abandoned by his allies, and threatened by the French with the loss of his Rhenish and Westphalian territories, was compelled to conclude with France and Sweden the peace of St. Germain-en-Laye in 1679, and to surrender all his conquests except a narrow strip of land on the right bank of the Oder.

(169.) The Reunions, 1680–81. During a period of thirty years, France, now at the summit of her glory under Colbert's administration, had considerably augmented her territories by four treaties of peace; but, as the ambitious cravings of Louis XIV. were not yet satisfied, Reunion-chambers were established (at Metz, Tournay (Doornik), Breisach, and Besançon), for the purpose of ascertaining what places had at any time belonged to the territories ceded to France. The result of this inquiry was, the re-annexation of several districts, and the occupation by the French of the fortresses of Strasburg and Luxembourg. The Emperor, who was at this time engaged in a war with the Turks, was forced to conclude an armistice with Louis for twenty years, and to leave him in undisturbed enjoyment of his new possessions. During this armistice, Louis XIV., chiefly at the instigation of his second wife, Madame de Maintenon, widow of the comic poet Scarron, revoked the edict of Nantes in 1685, forbade the public profession of Protestantism, and commanded that the children of Protestant parents should be brought up in the Romish faith. Although the emigration of Protestants was forbidden under the severest penalties, and all the frontiers were strictly watched, 50,000 Protestant families escaped into the neighboring states and into Brandenburg.

(170.) *Third war of spoliation*, 1688–97. The imperial generals having driven the Turks out of Hungary, and stormed the important Turkish fortress of Belgrade, Louis XIV., under the most frivolous pretexts, violated the armstice, and without any previous declaration of war took possession of the capitals of the three spiritual electors (Mainz, Trèves, and Bonn). This breach of the law of nations was speedily followed by the devastation of the Palatinate, notwithstanding the readiness with which the

inhabitants yielded to the most unreasonable demands of the French. Heidelberg, Mannheim, and all the towns as far as the frontier of Alsace, with the imperial cities of Spires and Worms, were reduced to ashes.

(171.) William of Orange having ascended the English throne, an alliance offensive and defensive was formed between England and Holland against France, which had afforded an asylum to the exiled King, James II. The war by sea commenced with the invasion of Ireland by a French force, for the purpose of replacing James on the throne, and concluded with the destruction of their fleet off Cape la Hogue. By land their arms were more successful: three brilliant victories were gained by Luxembourg; over the Dutch at Fleurus, and over William III. at Steenkirk and Neerwinden; and Savoy, the Duke of which had joined the alliance against France, was conquered by a French army under General Catinat. The exhausted state of his finances, and the diversion of the ambitious plans of Louis XIV. into a new channel by the immediate prospect of the death without issue of Charles II. of Spain, on the one side, and the mutual mistrust of the allies on the other, hastened the conclusion of peace at Ryswick (a village near the Hague) in 1697. By the terms of this peace Louis restored all his conquests, and all the re-united territories, except Alsace, to their legitimate possessors (Freiburg and Breisach to the house of Austria), and recognized William III. as King of Great Britain, retaining eighty-two places taken from the Spaniards in Belgium, and a part of the island of St. Domingo.

## § 20. *Germany.*

(172.) Ferdinand III. was succeeded by his son, Leopold I., 1658—1705, King of Hungary and Bohemia, who was obliged, at his election, to submit to still further limitations of the imperial authority. The Emperor was now compelled to govern in *conjunction with* the estates of the empire, the number of which, although the limits of the empire were contracted, had been increased, by the elevation of inferior nobles, to 240, and after

the peace of Westphalia had been divided, with reference to religion, into two distinct corporations, viz., Corpus Catholicorum and Corpus Evangelicorum. The diet now sat perpetually (since 1663), and, instead of being visited by the Emperor in person, and the great body of the nobles, consisted of a congress of deputies. The German empire at this period of our history was reduced to the condition of a powerless confederation, by the religious and political divisions of its princes and estates.

(173.) Turkish war, 1683—1699. Whilst Louis XIV. was conquering Alsace in the west, the Turks reappeared in formidable strength on the eastern frontier of the empire. A system of oppressive taxation and religious persecution had produced an insurrection of the Hungarians, headed by the Protestant count, Emmerich Tökely, and at their instigation, seconded by the persuasions of Louis XIV., the Sultan had declared war against Austria.

(174.) The Turks advanced without opposition (under the grand vizier, Kara Mustapha,) as far as Vienna (1683), which was abandoned by the Emperor, who fled to Passau. His capital, which was heroically defended by Count Stahrenberg, with 10,000 men, against the daily assaults of 270,000 Turks, was chiefly indebted for its preservation to John Sobieski, King of Poland, who, in conjunction with the imperialists under Duke Charles (V.) of Lorraine, defeated the besieging army, and saved not only Austria, but the whole German empire. The war with Turkey was now carried on so successfully, that after the capture of their principal fortress, Belgrade, the question of a partition of the Turkish provinces was agitated; but the policy pursued by France, and the third war of spoliation undertaken by Louis XIV., prevented the expulsion of the Turks from Europe. After the death of Charles of Lorraine, Prince Lewis of Baden gained the victory of Salenkemen; but it was not until Prince Eugene of Savoy had also been victorious at Zentha (1697), that negotiations were commenced for the establishment of peace, which was concluded at Carlowitz in 1699. By this treaty Transylvania and the country between the Danube and Theiss were assigned to Austria, and the

Morea, with several places in Dalmatia, to Venice, for the assistance which she had rendered during the war.

(175.) Hungary, hitherto an electoral kingdom, was created an hereditary monarchy at the diet of Presburg in 1687, and settled on the male line of the house of Austria. The Tyrol had belonged to the Emperor (by inheritance) since the year 1665, and Transylvania by treaty since 1699. For the wars with France, see § 19. Elevation of German princes—

1. The Romanist line of Pfalz Neuburg having succeeded to the Electorate of the Palatinate, the Protestants were now in a minority in the electoral college. To restore the balance of power, Hanover was erected into a ninth electorate in 1692.

(176.) 2. After the death of John Sobieski, the Elector of Saxony was chosen King of Poland, under the name of Augustus II. (1697), having previously qualified himself by going over to the Church of Rome.

(177.) 3. The elevation of the Elector of Brandenburg to the rank of King of Prussia, 1701.

## § 21. *Brandenburg and Prussia to* 1701.

(178.) 1. Frederick William, the Great Elector, 1640—1688. Out of the scattered provinces between the Niemen and the Rhine, which hitherto had had no bond of union, except their common subserviency to the same master, Frederick William formed a state, which was raised by his son to a high rank among German governments, and under his great-grandson became a first-rate European power. This eminent position was attained partly by the interference of Frederick the Great in the politics of north-eastern Europe, and in an inferior degree in those of the west, and partly by the consummate skill with which he administered the internal affairs of his kingdom.

(179.) a. *Participation in the Swedo-Polish war* (1655–60). The possession of the Swedish throne was contested by the line of Vasa (at that time reigning in Poland) with Charles Gustavus of Zweibrücken (Charles X.), who had succeeded on the abdication of Christina.

(180.) In the war which followed, between Sweden and Poland, both parties appealed to the Elector, who availed himself of this circumstance to throw off his feudal allegiance to Poland. The conquest of Poland, and invasion of eastern Prussia, by Charles X. having compelled the Elector to form an alliance with Sweden, the united armies engaged the Poles near Warsaw in 1656, and defeated them, after a battle which lasted three days. In the following year, the King of Poland (by the convention of Welau) recognized the independence of Prussia, which was finally established by the peace of Oliva, near Dantzic, notwithstanding the opposition of the Prussian nobles, who were adverse to the measure, partly because they had not been consulted, and partly because the grand object of the Elector was to emancipate himself from their authority, especially as regarded their right of voting, or refusing the imposition of taxes.

*For the war with France and Sweden*, see page 82.

(181.) b. *Internal administration.* The foundation of all Prussia's greatness for the next century and half, in her army, finances, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, arts and sciences, was laid by the Great Elector.

(182.) aa. Immediately after his accession, he formed the nucleus of a standing army, which was gradually increased to 24,000 (?) men, who were strictly disciplined and exercised in the use of different weapons. For the support of this force he introduced,

(183.) bb. In addition to the ancient taxes and duties, the excise on various articles of food and clothing, as an extraordinary impost, which eventually became perpetual, and extended over the whole country. At the same time he endeavored to reform the financial administration, by a more judicious system of expenditure, and a better management of the electoral estates.

(184.) cc. Foreigners and discharged soldiers were encouraged, by immunity from taxation for several years, to colonize those portions of his dominions which had been devastated by the thirty years' war.

(185.) dd. In order to facilitate inland communication, he united the Oder with the Spree, and also with the Havel and Elbe by the Frederick William Ca-

nal (three miles in length). Encouragement was also given to the formation of a commercial marine. The settlements on the coast of Guinea disappointed the expectation of their founders. The improvement in manufactures was rather the result of the influx of French artisans into Germany, after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, than of the stringent prohibitory laws passed for the protection, as it was supposed, of native industry.

(186.) ee. He founded the University of Duisburg, and the Royal Library at Berlin.

(187.) 2. Frederick III., as Elector, 1688—1701, assisted the Austrians against the French (whom he defeated near Neuss) and the Turks. In return for these services, the Emperor agreed to recognize the independence of Prussia. Berlin was enlarged and embellished by the addition of the Friedrichsstadt, the University of Halle, founded (1694), and academies of sciences (1701), of sculpture, and of painting, established at Berlin. With consent of the Emperor, who was anxious, now that the crown of Spain was vacant, to conciliate the most powerful princes of the empire, Frederick proclaimed himself King of Prussia, and on the 18th of January, 1701, placed the crown on his own head, and that of his consort, at Königsberg, and founded the order of the Black Eagle, in commemoration of the event.

## § 22. *Great Britain and Ireland.*

(188.) 1. Under the parliament, 1649–53. After the execution of Charles I., the upper house of parliament was dissolved, monarchy abolished, England proclaimed a republic by the lower house, and the government placed in the hands of a council of state consisting of forty-one members. The son of the murdered king having been proclaimed as Charles II., in Ireland as well as in Scotland, Cromwell reduced the Irish to submission, and then marched into Scotland, where the King was residing, defeated the Scotch near Dunbar, and penetrated into the Highlands. Meanwhile Charles, availing himself of Cromwell's absence, attempted to surprise England, but was

soon followed by the usurper, and compelled, after his defeat at Worcester, to wander in disguise, until at length, after a series of romantic adventures, he landed in safety on the coast of Normandy.

(189.) The new Commonwealth avenged itself on Holland for the murder of its ambassador, by passing the Navigation Act, which restricted foreign nations to the importation of their own produce in their own vessels, and thus annihilated the principal carrying trade of Holland.

(190.) Cromwell, reckoning with certainty on the support of the army, now dissolved the Rump Parliament by force, and assembled another, called, in mockery, from a fanatic leather-seller who played a principal part in its proceedings, "Barebone's Parliament." After dissolving this parliament also, Cromwell was nominated by his officers Protector of the three realms.

(191.) 2. Under the Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell, 1653—1658. The executive authority was vested in Cromwell and the legislative in the parliament, which was called together every three years. The management of the army was divided between them. The new navigation act occasioned a war between England and the united Netherlands, whose carrying trade was, as we have mentioned, nearly annihilated by that measure. No sooner was this war happily concluded, than a demand on the part of Cromwell of a free trade to the Spanish colonies produced a war with Spain, in which Jamaica and Dunkirk fell into the hands of the English. The question of offering the crown to the Protector, for which the parliament had been gradually and cautiously prepared, was at length brought forward, and through the exertions of his friends carried in the affirmative; but Cromwell was compelled by circumstances to refuse to accept the title of King. The anxiety occasioned by repeated conspiracies and attempts on his life embittered the latter days of the usurper, and hastened his death, which took place on the 3d September, 1658. Cromwell was succeeded in the Protectorate by his feeble-minded son Richard, who was compelled by the army to dissolve the parliament, and after a reign of eight months retired into private life

(1659). The state of anarchy which followed his resignation was terminated by General Monk, commander-in-chief in Scotland, who returned to London, and established a parliament, consisting of an Upper and Lower House, which recalled Charles II. in 1660.

### B. Under the last two Stuarts, 1660—1688.

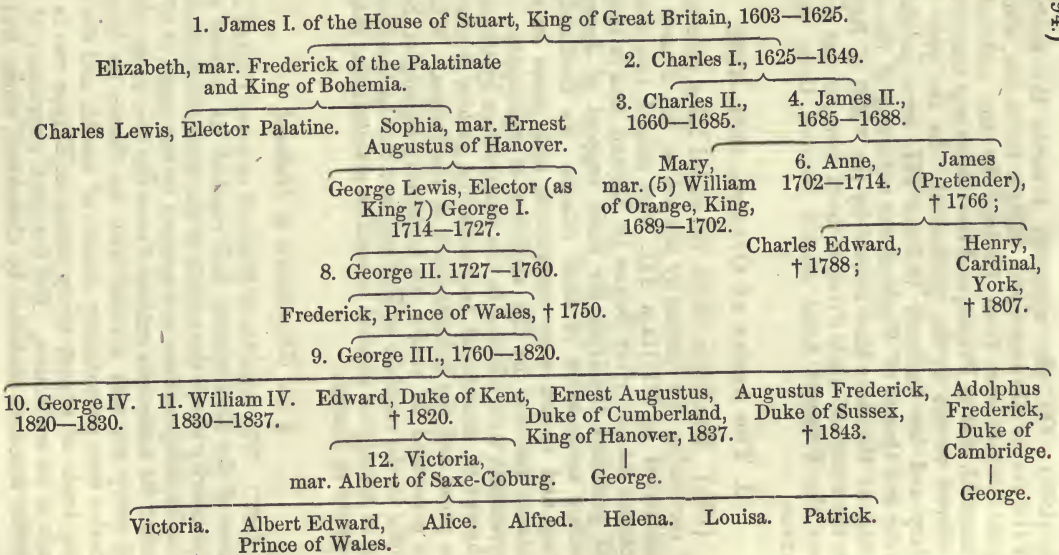
(192.) Charles II. (1660—1685) proclaimed an almost universal amnesty, appointed the wise Earl of Clarendon his prime minister, and re-established episcopacy in Scotland as well as in England. But the profligacy of his manners, and the recklessness with which he squandered the public money, soon disgusted the people, who witnessed with indignation the sale of Dunkirk to France; the disgraceful termination of two wars with Holland, which had been begun on the most frivolous pretences; the dismissal and banishment of Clarendon (whose place was supplied by the CABAL[1] ministry), and the frequent prorogations of parliament. *An act of toleration*, which he had published on his own responsibility, was annulled by parliament, who then passed the *test-act* (by which Dissenters and Romanists were excluded from public employments, and the latter also from parliament), and the Habeas Corpus Act, by which the King's subjects were secured from vexatious arrest. The debates respecting the settlement of the succession brought the Whig or opposition party into collision with the Tory or court party. During the last years of his reign, Charles governed without a parliament, and steadily opposed the exclusion of his Romanist brother James from the succession.

(193.) James II. (1685—1688), who ascended the throne without opposition, pursued with the most blind and reckless eagerness his two favorite plans, of rendering the authority of the crown absolute, and re-establishing Romanism. The appointment of Romanists to important civil and military offices, the attempt to abolish the test-

[1] So called from the first letters of the names of its members,—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale.

act, and in Scotland to repeal all the laws against Romanism, and the arrest of the seven bishops who ventured to resist his arbitrary proceedings, occasioned discontents, which terminated (on the exclusion from the succession of his Protestant daughters, Mary and Anne, by the birth of a prince) in the *English Revolution* of 1688.

## *The Houses of Stuart and Hanover.*



(195.) On the approach towards the capital of William of Orange, the King's son-in-law, who had been invited over from Holland by the malcontents, James II. fled to France, and the throne was immediately declared vacant by the parliament. In the year 1689, Mary and her husband William III. were proclaimed King and Queen of England, the authority of the crown being at the same time limited by the "Bill of Rights." In the event of their dying without issue, it was settled that the Princess Anne should succeed them on the throne.

### C. The house of Orange, 1689—1702.

(196.) The hopes which the exiled King entertained of recovering his throne by the aid of the French were annihilated by William III., who gained two decisive victories (at the river Boyne in Ireland and la Hogue), and punished the Irish for their support of James by another confiscation of their estates. In Scotland, the King and Queen were recognized, and peace in some measure restored by the abolition of episcopacy. Improvements were effected in the constitution by the establishment of ministerial responsibility, greater freedom of the press, and the independence of the judges. William was permitted to retain his hereditary dignity of Statthholder in the republic of Holland, and during the Spanish war of succession exerted himself to maintain the balance of power in Europe.

## § 23. *The republic of Holland.*

(197.) The republic of Holland, or seven United Provinces of the Netherlands, had reached its highest state of prosperity about the middle of the seventeenth century, when its independence was secured by the peace of Westphalia: its commerce extended over the face of the globe, and every sea was covered with its fleets; its herring fisheries were an unfailing source of wealth, and the carrying trade of almost every nation in Europe was in the hands of its merchants. But the naval supremacy of the republic was soon contested by Crownwell, whose Naviga-

tion Act inflicted a death-blow on its carrying trade; and the result of two wars with England (in which the Admirals Van Tromp and de Ruyter distinguished themselves) was only a very slight relaxation of the act. To these causes of decay were added the domestic troubles occasioned by the resistance of the Anti-Orange party under the Pensionary, John de Witt, to the ambitious designs of William II., whose death was the signal for the abolition of the Stattholdership in five provinces. Friesland and Gröningen had their own Stattholder (Count William of Nassau). During the war with Louis XIV. (occasioned by the anger of the French King on account of the triple alliance), the Stattholdership was re-established, at first in two, and subsequently in all the five provinces, and the dignity conferred for life on William III. of Orange, in whose family it soon afterwards became hereditary. The two brothers, John and Cornelius de Witt, who had resisted this arrangement, were assassinated by the mob at the instigation of the Orange party.

(198.) The marriage of William III. with the Princess Mary, and his consequent elevation to the English throne, enabled the two great naval powers of Europe to act in concert against the ambitious plans of Louis XIV.; but this advantage was more than counterbalanced by the additional restrictions imposed on the trade of Holland by her powerful ally. This circumstance, and the continued residence of William in England, considerably weakened the attachment of his Dutch subjects. After his death (without issue) in 1702, the Stattholdership remained vacant in the five provinces until the year 1747, when the invasion of the Dutch territory by the French, towards the end of the Spanish war of succession, occasioned the restoration (in all the provinces) of the hereditary dignity of the house of Orange. In the interval between the Spanish and Austrian war of succession, the republic observed strict neutrality in all its foreign relations.

### § 24. *The north-east of Europe.*

(199.) Under the first three Kings of the house of

Zweibrücken, Sweden occupied in northern Europe a position similar to that of France in the south and west, the possession of all the best harbors in the Baltic having placed her in the rank of a first-rate power from the time of the thirty years' war.

(200.) The claims which the house of Vasa advanced to the throne of Sweden afforded the ambitious Charles (1654—1660) a welcome pretext for declaring war against Poland. The rapidity with which his plan of invasion was executed placed the greater part of the kingdom at his disposal, and compelled the reigning sovereign (John Casimir) to take refuge in Silesia, whilst Charles, in conjunction with his ally, the Great Elector, defeated the Poles in the battle of Warsaw, after three days of hard fighting (1656). A confederation having been formed about this time for the maintenance of the balance of power in the north of Europe, and war declared against Sweden by the King of Denmark, Charles X. withdrew his forces from Poland, and, after rapidly overrunning the Danish continent, crossed the frozen Belt, and subdued the islands also. A peace was now concluded (at Roeskild, in 1658), by which the independence of Bornholm and the southern provinces of Sweden was recognized. But Charles soon repented of the facility with which he had acceded to these conditions, and, landing unexpectedly on the coast of Zealand, laid siege to Copenhagen, which was enabled, by the assistance of a Dutch fleet, to resist successfully all the attacks of the Swedes. The death of the King, and the minority of his son Charles XI. (1660—1697), induced the Swedish government to conclude a peace with Poland and her allies at Oliva in 1660 (John Casimir renouncing his claims to the Swedish throne, and giving up Esthonia, Orsel, and the greater part of Livonia), and with Denmark at Copenhagen. The conditions of the peace of Roeskild were confirmed by the peace of Copenhagen, except as regarded Drontheim and Bornholm, which were restored to Denmark. The participation of the Swedes in the war of Louis XIV. against Holland and Brandenburg occasioned the loss of their German possessions (after the battle of Fehrbellin, in 1675), but most of these were afterwards

restored (in 1679) by the peace of S. Germain-en-Laye. During the minority of Charles XI., his ministers had governed with absolute authority, and most of the estates of the crown had been appropriated by the higher nobility; but the unlimited powers conferred on him by the estates of the kingdom, after he had obtained full age, enabled him to recover the royal demesnes, which had been sold, or otherwise alienated, by his predecessors. By this accession of revenue, he was enabled to place the finances, army and navy, on a new and more efficient footing, and to bequeath to his son, Charles XII. (1697—1718), a flourishing kingdom and well-filled exchequer; but the fool-hardy and romantic projects of the new monarch soon reduced Sweden to her original state of poverty. In Denmark (under Frederick III., 1648—1670, and Christian V., 1670—1699), the utter exhaustion of her resources, occasioned by the war with Sweden and the loss of territory at the peace of Roeskild and Copenhagen, was followed by a change in the constitution; the clergy and commons, who were disgusted at the tyranny of the nobles, declaring the monarchy hereditary (in the female as well as the male line), and compelling the nobles to recognize the King as an *absolute hereditary sovereign* (1660). In a fresh war with Sweden, undertaken by the Danes as allies of the Great Elector, some conquests were made, which were afterwards relinquished at the peace of Lund.

(201.) Poland, at this time one of the most important empires of Europe, had exhibited a wretched picture of aristocratic tyranny since the establishment of an elective government, which placed the supreme authority in the hands of deputies chosen by all the nobles who had attained full age,—a power being given to each individual to annul the resolutions of the rest by his "liberum veto." The last of the three kings of the house of Vasa, John Casimir, was so disgusted at the turbulent state of his kingdom, and his unsuccessful wars with Sweden and Russia (cession of Smolensk, Kiev, and the Ukraine beyond the Dnieper), that he resigned his crown and retired to France, where the revenues of two abbeys were settled on him by Louis XIV. His next successor but one, the

brave John Sobieski (1673—1695), entered into an alliance with the Emperor against the Turks (by whom Austria and Poland were equally threatened), and compelled them to raise the siege of Vienna (1683); but the Turkish war was not terminated until the reign of his successor Augustus II. (1697—1733), Elector of Saxony, who concluded a peace at Carlowitz (1699), by which Poland, through the intervention of Austria, recovered Podolia and the Ukraine. Russia, under the able and energetic Czars of the house of Romanow, had risen from an Asiatic into a European state. Not only had the frontier of the empire been extended on the side of Poland by Alexei, but the way had been prepared for the introduction of European civilization (posts, manufactures, &c). Under his son (Feodor III.) the Ukraine was wrested from the Turks. After his death, his two sons—Ivan, who was of weak intellect and almost blind; and Peter, a prince of extraordinary ability—were raised together to the throne by the Strelitzes,[1] under the guardianship of their elder sister, Sophia (1682). The treacherous policy of this princess, in suffering her brother Peter to receive a foreign education for the purpose of rendering him unpopular among his subjects, laid the foundation of his future glory. Sophia, who had excited an insurrection of the Strelitzes against her younger brother, was sent to pass the rest of her days in a convent, whilst Peter, leaving to his brother Ivan the empty title of Czar (1689—1725), assumed the authority of sole monarch (under the guidance of a Genevese named Lefort), and commenced a complete revolution in the empire. The army was remodelled after the European pattern, and preparations were made for the creation of a navy. Azov, the key of the Black Sea, was wrested from the Turks. For the purpose at once of satisfying his curiosity, and of acquiring a knowledge of European civilization, Peter, after sending before him an embassy headed by Lefort, travelled through Germany into Holland (1697), where he

[1] The Russian strelitzy were a large and powerful body of soldiers, who, like the Turkish janizaries, continually interfered with the government.—S.

worked in the dockyard at Saardam as a common shipwright. Then he visited William III. in England, and on his return through Germany was on the eve of entering Italy, when a fresh insurrection of the Strelitzes, for the purpose of resisting his innovations, recalled him to Moscow. After punishing the guilty with barbarous severity, and disbanding the corps of Strelitzes, Peter established an army officered exclusively by foreigners, founded schools, introduced foreign manners (the German style of dress, &c.), and, having abolished the office of Patriarch, united in his own person the supreme spiritual as well as temporal authority.[2] His project of extending the boundaries of Russia to the shore of the Baltic, at the expense of Sweden, involved him in the great northern war (see § 26).

## II. To the French Revolution.

### § 25. *War of the Spanish succession*, 1701—1714.

(202.) No sooner was it known that Charles II., King of Spain, son of Philip IV., and the last male descendant of the Spanish-Austrian house, was likely to die without issue, than several princes claimed the succession to the Spanish throne. 1. Louis XIV. (as husband of the King's eldest sister), on behalf of his grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou. In bringing forward this claim, Louis declared his consort's renunciation (see page 80) null and void as regarded her descendants. 2. Leopold I., as husband of the younger sister of the King of Spain (who had never renounced her claim to the Spanish crown), for his younger son Charles. 3. The Elector of Bavaria, as immediate descendant of Charles's younger sister. With the view of anticipating a partition of the Spanish monarchy, as contemplated by France and the maritime powers, Charles, by will, declared the Elector of Bavaria, and (on his sudden demise, during the lifetime of the testator) the Dauphin's second son, Philip of Anjou, universal heir to

[2] His supremacy over the Church was much the same as that exercised by the king or queen of England.—S.

all his dominions. On the 1st November, 1700, soon after the death of Charles II., the Duke of Anjou assumed the title of Philip V., King of Spain. To punish France for this violation of the partition-treaty, the maritime powers (or rather William III.) concluded with the Emperor the so-called Grand Alliance, pledging themselves to recover for the house of Austria the Spanish possessions in the Netherlands and Italy, and never to permit the union of the French and Spanish crowns. The first of the German princes who joined this alliance was the King of Prussia. On the other hand, the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne sided with their nephew, Philip of Anjou.

### A. Struggles in Italy and Germany, 1701—1704.

(203.) 1. In Italy. The Emperor, supported by the two German princes, who were indebted to him for their elevation to a higher rank (the King of Prussia and the Elector of Hanover), despatched one army, under Prince Lewis of Baden, to dispute the passage of the Rhine with the French, and another under Prince Eugene of Savoy (who had distinguished himself at the raising of the siege of Vienna, and in the subsequent Turkish wars, as well as in three wars with France) into Italy, which had been already entered by a French army under General Catinat. Eugene crossed the Tyrolese Alps, defeated Catinat at Carpi, and took Villeroi (the King's incapable favorite) prisoner at Chiari, but was compelled to retire, after an indecisive engagement at Luzzara, before the overwhelming force of the Duke of Vendôme.

(204.) 2. In Germany. Louis XIV. having recognized the son of James II. as King of England, in the hope of sowing the seeds of dissension in that country, supplies were granted to William III. by his parliament, for the purpose of commencing a war in the Spanish Netherlands and the Electorate of Cologne, under the Earl (afterwards Duke) of Marlborough. At the same time Portugal and Savoy joined the Grand Alliance. Mean-

while the French, under Villars, had circumvented the German army on the Rhine, and effected a junction with the Elector of Bavaria. The Elector's plan of entering the Tyrol, and uniting his forces with the army of Villeroi on its return from Italy, was rendered abortive by the bravery of the Tyrolese (under Martin Sterzinger), and both armies were forced to retreat.

(205.) In the year 1704, Marlborough unexpectedly effected a junction with Eugene for the purpose of making a combined assault on the Bavarian-French army. Eugene covered the Rhine, whilst Marlborough (with the Margrave of Baden) defeated the Bavarians on the Schellenberg near Donauwerth; but, being unable to hinder the passage of the Rhine by a fresh detachment of French troops (under Tallard), he rejoined Marlborough, and in conjunction with him defeated the Bavarians and French near Höchstädt and Blenheim with such terrible slaughter, that of an army of 60,000 men scarcely one-third reached the Rhine after the engagement. The whole of Bavaria was overrun by the conquerors, who treated the inhabitants with the utmost severity; the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne were set aside and placed under the bann of the empire by the Emperor,

Joseph I. (1705—1711),

and the Upper Palatinate was restored to the Elector Palatine.

B. Struggle in Spain, the Netherlands, and Italy, for the united Spanish monarchy, 1704—1710.

(206.) 1. In Spain itself the war began in 1704, on the landing of the Archduke Charles on the coast of Portugal with a body of English and Dutch soldiers. The only important event of the first year was the re-capture of Gibraltar from the English; but no sooner had four provinces (Catalonia, Valencia, Arragon, and Navarre) declared for Charles III., than a civil war began, the horrors of which are almost without a parallel in history. Philip V. was driven from his capital, but soon afterwards re-

turned, on finding that Charles had neglected to take advantage of his flight. The war, however, still continued, fostered by national hatred, between the Castilians and Arragonese; the latter, after defeating the allies near Almanza, ravaged the province of Valencia. A reinforcement of German troops under the brave Stahremberg, and the exhausted condition of France, enabled Charles III. a second time to drive Philip V. out of Madrid; but, within two months from the period of his triumphal entry into his capital, the arrival of Vendôme in Spain compelled him again to seek safety in flight, and return (after the death of his brother, Joseph I., in 1711) to Germany.

(207.) 2. In the Netherlands and Italy. After the battle of Höchstädt, Eugene and Marlborough had again parted company, the former returning to Italy, and the latter to the Netherlands. The efforts of both generals were crowned with unexpected success. Bavaria, as before, surrendered after a single battle, and the most important Spanish provinces in the Netherlands fell into the hands of the allies. Marlborough, whose qualifications as a subtle diplomatist and accomplished courtier had stood him in good stead in his negotiations with the courts of Vienna and Berlin, again took the field against the French, who were projecting the invasion of Holland, defeated near Ramillies an army of 60,000 men under Villeroi (1706), subdued Brabant, Flanders, and a part of Hennegau, and compelled those provinces to swear allegiance to Charles III. In the autumn of the same year, Eugene, assisted by the Prussians under Leopold of Dessau, defeated a French army of 80,000 men which was besieging Turin, and obtained an enormous amount of booty. After their defeat the French evacuated Lombardy; and Eugene, who had been nominated Viceroy of Milan by Joseph I., compelled the principal inhabitants of that province to swear allegiance to Charles III. An army, which he had despatched to Naples under the command of Count Daun, was received with every demonstration of joy by the Neapolitans. In the year 1708 the English took possession of Sardinia; so that of all her European provinces there now remained to Spain only the island of Sicily. After the termination of the war in It-

aly, Eugene re-entered Flanders, and in conjunction with Marlborough defeated the French at Oudenarde on the Scheldt (1708), and stormed the fortress of Ryssel (Lille), the chef-d'œuvre of the celebrated engineer Vauban, which had been always considered impregnable. Meanwhile, Louis XIV., dispirited by such a series of disasters, and deprived of the resources necessary for a fresh campaign by an unusually severe winter, was negotiating a peace (at the Hague), and had already consented to relinquish the pretensions of his family to the Spanish crown, and to cede Alsace with certain fortresses on the frontier of Savoy, when the allies, rendered insolent by success, demanded that he should send an army into Spain for the purpose of deposing his own grandson. On receiving this insult, Louis at once broke off the negotiations, and by extraordinary exertions raised another army (under Villars), which was defeated in 1709 by Eugene and Marlborough at Malplaquet. The negotiations for peace were then renewed, and Louis had already declared himself ready to furnish a considerable portion of the funds necessary for the expulsion of his grandson, when the simultaneous occurrence of three important events entirely changed the aspect of affairs.

### C. Reverse of fortune. Peace concluded at Utrecht, Rastadt, and Baden, 1711—1714.

(208.) 1. *The fall of Marlborough* (leader of the Whig party in England), and the change of policy consequent on the formation of a Tory cabinet by Queen Anne. 2. *The death of the Emperor Joseph*, who was succeeded on the imperial throne by the Archduke Charles; and 3. *The victories of the Duke of Vendôme in Spain*, which enabled Louis, towards the end of his life, to conclude a peace on terms unexpectedly favorable to France. In the first place he concluded with the maritime powers, who were opposed to the re-union of Austria with the Spanish monarchy, the peace of Utrecht (1713), by which Philip V. was recognized as King of Spain and her transalantic colonies, it being at the same time stipulated that no re-union of the French and Spanish crowns should ever take place.

(209.) In this peace *England* obtained from France the recognition of the Protestant succession, and possession of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Hudson's Bay; and from Spain the island of Minorca and Gibraltar, with the privilege of trading in slaves to Spanish America. *Prussia* obtained Upper Guelderland, and the universal recognition of her recently established monarchy; and *Savoy* the island of Sicily, which she soon afterwards exchanged for Sardinia. In the year 1714 a treaty was concluded at Rastadt between Charles VI. and the sovereigns who had been parties to the peace of Utrecht, the Emperor receiving the Spanish provinces, viz. the Netherlands, Naples, Milan, and Sardinia (with the exception of Mantua and the Tuscan sea-ports), and the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne being reinstated in their dignities. This treaty, which had been negotiated between Eugene and Villars, was fully recognized at the peace of Baden, by which the German empire obtained merely the confirmation of the treaties concluded at Münster, Nimeguen, and Ryswick.

## § 26. *The northern war*, 1700—1721.

(210.) *Causes of the war.* 1. The desire of Peter the Great to re-conquer those provinces on the shores of the Baltic which had been wrested from Russia by the Swedes. 2. The anxiety of Augustus II., Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, to recover Esthonia and Livonia, and at the same time to repress domestic discontent by employing his disaffected subjects in a foreign war. 3. The designs of the King of Denmark (Frederick IV.) on the portion of Holstein at that time possessed by the Duke of Holstein Gottorp, brother-in-law of Charles XII., and his wish to recover the provinces which had been ceded to Sweden by the peace of Copenhagen. At the instance of Augustus II., a league was formed between Russia and Denmark, the object of which was to take advantage of the youth of Charles XII., and compel him to restore the provinces which had been wrested by his ancestors from Russia, Poland, and Denmark.

(211.) 1. The Danish war, 1700, began with the

invasion of Holstein Gottorp by the Danes, and of Livonia by the Saxons. Addressing himself to the danger which seemed the most imminent, the young King landed on the island of Zealand, and advancing to the capital compelled Frederick IV. (in a separate peace concluded at Travendal in 1700) to renounce his allianee with Russia, and restore to the Duke of Holstein Gottorp all the territory of which he had been deprived by the Danes.

(212.) 2. The Russian-Saxon war, 1700—1706. The Czar, Peter, having marched at the head of an enormous force to the assistance of his ally the King of Poland, Charles XII., after forcing him (1700) to raise the siege of Narva, drove the Russians and Saxons out of Livonia, conquered the greater part of Lithuania, and, entering Poland in triumph, compelled the Poles to depose Augustus II., and elect in his room the Waiwode of Posen, Stanislaus Leszczinsky (1704), whose general recognition was the result of fresh victories over the Saxons, and the invasion of Lithuania by the Swedes. Leaving his most dangerous enemy, the Czar, to extend his conquests on the shores of the Baltic, and found a new capital within the frontiers of Sweden herself (1703), Charles XII. invaded Saxony, and compelled Augustus II. (in the peace of Altranstädt, 1706) to recognize Stanislaus Lesczinsky as King of Poland, renounce his alliance with the Czar, and deliver up the Russian ambassador Patkul (the instigator of the war), who was broken on the wheel by command of the conqueror.

(213.) 3. Russian war to 1709. Reverse of fortune. All the fruits of these brilliant successes were lost through the obstinacy and fool-hardiness of Charles. Having received intelligence that the Czar had entered Poland for the purpose of wreaking vengeance on Stanislaus and the Swedish party in that country, he quitted Saxony, and, advancing by forced marches, drove the Russians out of the Polish territories. Elated at his success, Charles now conceived the design of dethroning the Czar, whose innovations and cruelties had rendered him odious, and had already forced his way through forests and morasses to the banks of the Dnieper, and crossed that river, when the Hetman of the Cossacks, Mazeppa, per-

suaded him (instead of advancing at once on Moscow, after effecting a junction with General Löwenhaupt) to adopt a circuitous route through the Ukraine for the purpose of joining his new ally. Although he found the Cossack leader abandoned by his own troops, Charles obstinately persisted in advancing, notwithstanding the severity of the weather, and engaging with the miserable remnant of his army (15,000 men) 50,000 Russians at Pultawa, where he was so utterly defeated, that he was compelled to cross the Dnieper with a few attendants, and take refuge in the Turkish city of Bender.

(214.) 4. Charles XII. in Turkey, 1709—1714. The flight of Charles XII., and his five years' residence in Turkey, afforded the Poles and Danes an opportunity of violating the conditions of peace which he had compelled them to subscribe. Augustus II. declared his extorted abdication null and void, and having expelled Stanislaus from his dominions, re-ascended the Polish throne, whilst the Danes invaded the southern provinces of Sweden, where they sustained two disgraceful defeats, but succeeded in wresting Schleswig from the Duke of Holstein Gottorp. Meanwhile Peter, availing himself of the absence of his enemy, conquered the Swedish provinces of Livonia, Esthonia, and Finland, and at the same time proceeded with his plans for the civilization of the Russian people. After various negotiations and intrigues, Charles at length persuaded the Sultan to declare war against Russia; and Peter, who had endeavored to anticipate the attack of the Turks, was surrounded by them on the banks of the Pruth, and only escaped through the exertions of his wife, Catherine, who bribed the Grand Vizier to grant a peace, by which the Russians were excluded from the Black Sea. Charles, who still lingered at Bender in the hope of persuading the Turks to renew hostilities, was at length required to quit the Turkish territory, and on his refusal was attacked in his fortified house, and after an obstinate defence was compelled to yield himself a prisoner. In the year 1714, after a succession of romantic adventures, Charles returned to Sweden.

### 5. Ivasion of Norway and death of Charles XII.

(215.) Meanwhile Frederick William I., King of Prussia, and George I., Elector of Hanover and King of England, had joined the enemies of Sweden, which now lost the last of her possessions in Germany (Stralsund and Wismar). Whilst Peter I. was kept in play by Count von Görz, who amused him with the prospect of obtaining the Swedish Baltic provinces by negotiation, Charles took advantage of the fresh courage with which his arrival had inspired the Swedes, and prepared to invade Norway, in the hope of recompensing himself for all his other losses by wresting that country from the Danes. The first campaign (1716) was a failure in consequence of the severity of the weather, and in the third Charles fell in the trenches before the fortress of Friedrickshall, probably by the hand of an assassin, and the victim of a conspiracy (1718, in his thirty-sixth year). Passing over the nephew of the late sovereign, the Duke of Holstein Gottorp, the conspirators raised to the throne his younger sister, Ulrica Eleanora, wife of the hereditary prince of Hesse-Cassel, who had declared herself ready to renounce all claim to the succession in the female line, and to recognize the right of the senate to enact laws, impose taxes, and settle questions of war and peace. At a later period (1720) the Queen resigned the reins of government into the hands of her husband, who consented to make still further concessions in order to secure the recognition of his title by the estates of the realm.

(216.) 6. The war was terminated by treaties concluded separately with the enemies of Sweden. 1. Hanover obtained Bremen and Verden in return for a payment of one million of thalers. 2. Prussia had the whole of Pomerania between the Oder and Peene, with Stettin and the islands of Usedom and Wollin (for two million thalers). 3. Denmark received a portion of Schleswig. 4. The Russians, by repeated descents on the coast of Sweden, compelled the Swedes (in the peace of Nystädt, 1721) to cede to them Livonia, Esthonia, Ingermanland, and a part of Carelia (with the island of Oesel) in return for the restoration of Finland. Thus Sweden

lost her preponderance in the north of Europe, which was now assumed by Russia. Stanislaus Lesczinsky, who had found an asylum in France, was permitted to retain the title of King by virtue of a convention between Sweden and Saxony.

## § 27. *The Emperor Charles VI.* 1711—1740.

### 1. War of the Turks against Venice and Austria (1714—1718).

(217.) Scarcely had the Turks concluded the Russian war by the peace of the Pruth, when they availed themselves of a paltry pretext for wresting from the Venetians the peninsula of the Morea, which had been ceded to them by the peace of Carlowitz. On learning that the Emperor Charles VI. was preparing to assist the Venetians, they declared war against him also, and advanced towards the Danube; but in spite of their overwhelming force, they were utterly routed by Prince Eugene near Peterwardein (1716), with the loss of their Grand Vizier, camp, and military chest. Eugene then conquered the Banate and a great portion of Wallachia, obtained a brilliant victory near Belgrade, and made himself master of that important fortress. The Emperor, whose Italian possessions were assailed by Spain, was now anxious to conclude a peace with the Turks, the conditions of which (signed at Passarowitz in 1718) were as follows: That he should retain all the territories wrested from the Turks during the war (the Banate, Servia, and a portion of Wallachia, Bosnia, and Croatia), the Turks, on their part, retaining the Morea, which Charles had fruitlessly endeavored to recover for Venice.

### 2. The quadruple alliance (1718).

(218.) No arrangement had yet been effected between the two principal claimants of the Spanish succession; Charles VI. still refusing to recognize Philip V. as King of Spain, whilst on the other hand the Spanish minister, Cardinal Alberoni, devised a plan for re-annexing the Italian provinces to the crown of Spain, and, availing

himself of the diversion caused by the Turkish war, took possession of Sicily and Sardinia. France and England (with a provision for the subsequent accession of Holland to the treaty) concluded with the Emperor a quadruple alliance for the maintenance of the peace of Utrecht; and after a short war compelled Philip (after the dismissal of Alberoni) to restore Sicily and Sardinia, and renounce all claim to the Spanish provinces in Italy, the Emperor, on his part, consenting to recognize his title as King of Spain. Savoy received Sicily from the Emperor in exchange for the kingdom of Sardinia.

### 3. The pragmatic sanction.

(219.) In order to prevent a war of succession after his decease, Charles VI., who had no male issue, published an edict (which was confirmed by the diet of the empire, and received the name of the pragmatic sanction), declaring his daughter Maria Theresa sole heiress of all the Austrian states. During the remainder of his life, the grand object of his government was to obtain from foreign powers, as well as from his own subjects, the complete recognition of this decree.

### 4. War of the Polish succession (1733—1738).

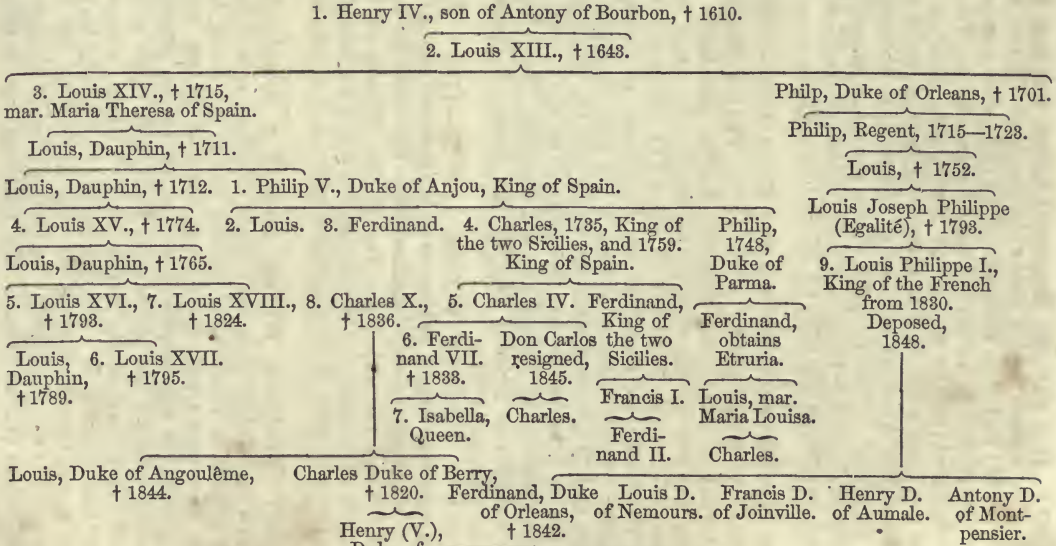
(220.) After the death of Augustus II. King of Poland, a majority of the Polish nobles were persuaded by Louis XV. to restore his father-in-law, Stanislaus Lesczinsky, whilst at the same time another party, supported by Russia and the Emperor, chose Augustus, Elector of Saxony and son of the deceased King. Stanislaus having been expelled by the Russians, Louis XV., and his relatives the Kings of Spain and Sardinia, declared war against the Emperor. Lorraine (the Duke of which country, Francis Stephen, was a candidate for the hand of Maria Theresa), Austria, Lombardy, Naples, and Sicily, were occupied by the allies until the year 1738, when a peace was at last concluded at Vienna, after a long period spent in negotiation. Stanislaus renounced his claim to the crown of Poland, receiving as an indemnification for this sacrifice the dukedoms of Lorraine and Bar, with an understanding that after his death they would revert to

France as the hereditary possessions of his daughter. Francis Stephen, Duke of Lorraine, obtained the grand duchy of Tuscany, at that time vacant by the extinction of the house of Medici (1737), and the crown of the two Sicilies was bestowed on the Spanish Infant Don Carlos, who relinquished to the Emperor the duchies of Parma and Piacenza.

### 5. War of the Turks against Russia and Austria (1736—1739).

(221.) Availing herself of the opportunity afforded by the breaking out of a war between the Turks and Persians, the Empress Anne took possession of Azov, which had been ceded to the Turks by Peter the Great at the peace of the Pruth.

*The Houses of Bourbon in France, Spain, the two Sicilies, and Parma.*



(223.) Her ally, the Emperor Charles, was less fortunate, his armies (which since the death of Prince Eugene [†1736] had been commanded by incapable generals) being defeated in three several engagements by the Turks, who recovered (at the peace of Belgrade, 1739) most of the territory which had been wrested from them in former wars (the Austrian portion of Servia and Wallachia, with Belgrade). The Empress Anne was also compelled to relinquish all her conquests, and content herself with the recognition of her title by the Sublime Porte.

§ 28. *Prussia under her first two Kings*, 1701—1740.

(224.) 1. Frederick I., 1701—1713. For his elevation to the rank of King, see page 89; for the part taken by him in the war of the Spanish succession, see page 100. By the death without issue of William III., King of England, Frederick, as grandson of the Prince of Orange, Frederick Henry, became possessed of the countries of Lingen and Meurs, and after the extinction of the house of Orleans, Longueville was recognized by the estates of the principalities of Neuenburg and Valendis (Neufchatel and Valengin) as rightful heir of the house of Nassau-Chalons-Orange (1707).

(225.) 2. Frederick William I., 1713—1740. This prince, who was frugal, moderate in his desires, and strict even to severity, entirely banished from his court the luxury which had reigned there during the lifetime of his father, the only expensive amusement in which he indulged being the collection from different countries of a regiment of giants.

(226.) Frederick William amassed a considerable treasure (more than eight millions of thalers), established a new system of finance and justice, and at his death left to his successor a well disciplined army of 72,000 men. The population was increased by the protection afforded to foreign settlers, new cities were built, and those which already existed, especially Berlin and Potsdam, were enlarged and beautified. At the peace of Utrecht he received Upper Guelderland as an indemnification for his resignation of the principality of Orange, and at the peace of Stockholm (at the close of the northern war, in which

he took part with the enemies of Sweden), Pomerania, as far as the Peene, with Stettin and the islands of Usedom and Wollin. For many years he lived on bad terms with his son Frederick, whose early passion for music and poetry so disgusted his father, that he threatened to exclude him from the succession. A plan laid by Frederick (during a royal progress, in which he accompanied his father) for escaping from Wesel to England, having been betrayed by his enemies, the unfortunate Prince was placed under close arrest at Küstrin, his accomplice Katte executed before his face, and himself only rescued from a disgraceful death by the intercession of some of the most distinguished officers and the remonstrances of several foreign courts. Soon afterwards, however, he was reconciled to his father in consequence of his marriage with the Princess of Brunswick-Bevern (Elizabeth Christina), and received from him the county of Ruppin and the little town of Rheinsberg, where he resided in the midst of a circle of scientific and learned men until his accession in 1740. His favorite associate (for a time) was the philosopher Voltaire, under whose direction he cultivated French literature with considerable success.

### § 29. *War of the Austrian succession*, 1740—1748, *and the two first Silesian wars*, 1740—1745.

(227.) On the accession of Maria Theresa (1740—1780) to the thrones of Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia, the Electors, Charles Albert of Brandenburg, and Augustus III. of Saxony (who claimed the Austrian crown as sons-in-law of the Emperor Joseph I.), were supported by France and Spain, notwithstanding the pragmatic sanction.

(228.) Frederick II. (the Great) availed himself of this opportunity for reviving the ancient claims of Brandenburg to the Silesian duchies of Brieg, Liegnitz, and Wohlau (which had belonged to her, by virtue of a compact, since the extinction of the Piast line in 1675, but had been taken possession of by the Emperor), and to the principality of Jägerndorf (which had belonged to the Margrave of Anspach, and been

seized by Austria in 1623). The refusal of Maria Theresa to recognize these claims, occasioned

The first Silesian war, 1740—1742.

(229.) This war began with the rapid conquest of Silesia and a victory gained by the Prussian troops near Molwitz (at Brieg, April 10, 1741), through the skill and valor of Field-marshal Schwerin, who continued the engagement after Frederick had abandoned all hope of success. In the following year Frederick overran Moravia and Bohemia, gained a second victory at Czaslau, and obtained (at the peace of Breslau) almost the whole of Silesia (except Teschen, Troppau, and Jägerndorf), with the fortress of Glatz. By these concessions the Empress separated Frederick from her other enemies. Meanwhile Charles Albert, supported by a French army, had entered Austria, and caused himself to be proclaimed Archduke of that country at Linz, and crowned King of Bohemia at Prague, and Emperor (Charles VII.) at Frankfort (1742—1745). The Saxons had entered Bohemia and taken possession of Prague; but Maria Theresa, who had received supplies of money from England and Holland, so inspirited the Hungarians by appearing in person at the diet of Presburg, that they equipped two armies simultaneously, and recovered possession of Bohemia and Upper Austria. Charles VII. was driven out of Bavaria by the Austrians, and Maria Theresa proclaimed at Munich, whilst at the same time Charles's allies, the French, were defeated by the so-called pragmatic army (composed of English, Hanoverians, and Hessians, and commanded by George II. King of England) at Dettengen on the Main. These events produced a fresh alliance between France, the Emperor Charles, and Frederick II., the last joining the confederacy because he dreaded the success of the Austrian arms, and commencing

The second Silesian war, 1744, 1745,

(230) with the invasion of Bohemia at the head of an army of 80,000 men, whom he called "imperial auxilia-

ries," whilst at the same time the imperialists regained possession of Bavaria. On the death of Charles VII., soon after his return (which was accomplished by the aid of his French allies), his son Maximilian Joseph renounced all claim to the Austrian succession (at the peace of Füssen in 1745), and the Grand Duke of Tuscany (husband of Maria Theresa) ascended the imperial throne as Francis I., 1745—1765. England was compelled to withdraw her troops from the continent to oppose the advance of the Pretender, who had landed on the coast of Scotland, and overrun the greater part of that country. Meanwhile, however, Austria had found a new ally in Saxony; and the Austrian general, Prince Charles of Lorraine, had not only driven the Prussians out of Bohemia, but even advanced into Upper Silesia, where he was defeated (1745) near Hohenfriedberg by Frederick, who followed him into Bohemia, and a second time overthrew him at Sorr. A plan for invading the King's territories in conjunction with the Saxons was also rendered abortive by a victory gained by the veteran Dessau near Kesselsdorf; and the peace of Dresden confirmed Frederick in the possession of Silesia and Glatz. Meanwhile the French, under the command of Marshal Saxe, a natural son of Augustus II., King of Poland, had made themselves masters of the whole of the Spanish Netherlands, except Luxembourg, Limburg, and Geldern. The French and Spanish armies also prosecuted the war in Italy, but without any permanent results. In the year 1748, a Russian army of 30,000 men was despatched to the Rhine by the Empress Elizabeth, and soon afterwards peace was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, the French relinquishing all their conquests in the Netherlands, and Austria ceding Parma and Piacenza to the Spanish Infant, Don Philip.

### § 30. *The third Silesian* or *seven years' war.*

(231.) After the peace of Dresden, Maria Theresa, by advice of her minister Count Kaunitz, employed all the arts of diplomacy for the purpose of embroiling the King of Prussia with the other European courts. During the

war, she had represented to the Empress of Russia the danger to be apprehended even by first-rate powers from the ambitious character of Frederick, and his intimate connection with France; and in the year 1746 a secret treaty was concluded between the two Empresses, who pledged themselves, supposing Frederick to violate the conditions settled at the peace of Dresden, to strain every nerve for the re-conquest of Silesia and the abasement of Prussia. The Saxon court, where Count Brühl, the personal enemy of Frederick, ruled with absolute authority, seems to have been also a party to this treaty. Meanwhile, a dispute respecting the boundaries of their respective possessions in America had occasioned a war between England and France; and the former country, anxious to secure her German territories (Hanover) against invasion, had concluded an alliance with Frederick of Prussia. On the other hand, France allied herself with Austria, in the hope of securing the neutrality of that power during the maritime war between herself and England.

### The year 1756.

(232.) Frederick, who was well aware of the machinations of his enemies, and the preparations which they were making in Bohemia and Moravia, anticipated their movements by suddenly entering Saxony at the head of 60,000 men, laying siege to Dresden, and blockading a hastily-levied Saxon army of 17,000 men in their fortified camp between Pirna and Königstein. On the advance of an Austrian army (under Brown) to the assistance of the Saxons, Frederick divided his forces, and with only half his army defeated the enemy near Lowositz (Oct. 1). After this victory he returned into Saxony, where he passed the winter, after compelling the Saxon soldiers, who were blockaded at Pirna, to surrender as prisoners of war.

### The year 1757.

(233.) The invasion of Saxony by Frederick compelled the French, however unwillingly, as parties to the

peace of Westphalia, to conclude an alliance, offensive and defensive, against Prussia, with Austria, Russia, and the German empire. To this treaty Sweden also became a party, in the hope of obtaining possession of Prussian Pomerania. Leaving to his by no means numerous allies (England, Hesse-Cassel, Brunswick, and Gotha) the duty of keeping the French at bay, Frederick, after sending a detachment to meet the Russians and Swedes, advanced at the head of his grand army against his bitter enemies the Austrians, who prosecuted the war with more rancorous pertinacity than the other powers, to most of whom, especially the Protestant Princes, the aggrandizement of Austria was by no means a desirable event; nor was a very determined opposition to be expected from the King of Sweden, who was Frederick's own brother-in-law. His enemies brought altogether 431,000 men into the field, the Prussians and their allies 200,000. All the troops quartered in Saxony advanced into Bohemia in four divisions, and, uniting before Prague, defeated the Austrian generals, Prince Charles of Lorraine and Brown, in the famous battle of Prague (May 6), where Field-marshal Schwerin lost his life after rallying the wavering Prussians for a final charge. The greater part of the defeated army took refuge in Prague, where they were besieged by the Prussian army; but on the advance of Field-marshal Daun to the relief of the city, Frederick attacked him in his strongly-fortified position at Kollin (June 18), and was for the first time defeated. This check, which compelled him to raise the siege and retire into Saxony, encouraged the hitherto inactive allies of Austria to attempt a decisive stroke. The *French* (100,000 men), who had already taken possession of the Prussian territories on the Rhine, now advanced as far as the Weser (under the command of Marshal d'Estrées), and defeated the allies of Frederick (40,000 men, under the Duke of Cumberland) at Hastenbeck, in the territory of Hameln (July 26); but instead of availing themselves fully of the advantage thus gained, they were satisfied with levying contributions in Hanover. The *Russians* (104,000 men), under Apraxin, marched into Eastern Prussia, and defeated Field-marshal Lehwald near Gross-

jägerndorf (August 30), but were unexpectedly recalled. On receiving intelligence that the *imperial army* (under the Prince of Hildburghausen), and (at the earnest solicitation of Austria) a second French army (under Soubise, a favorite of Madame de Pompadour) were advancing to the relief of Saxony, Frederick, leaving the Duke of Bevern with 43,000 men in Lusace, advanced with 22,000 men to meet the combined imperial and French troops (64,000 strong), and completely routed the ill-assorted and badly-officered masses at Rossbach, on the Saale (5th November)). For this victory Frederick was mainly indebted to a desperate charge made by Seidlitz at the head of his cavalry. Having thus secured Saxony, the King advanced by forced marches into Silesia, in order to effect a junction with the Duke of Bevern, who had retreated into that country. To prevent this, Prince Charles of Lorraine attacked the Duke near Breslau (22nd November), and routed his army. The Duke himself was taken prisoner, and soon afterwards the fortresses of Schweidnitz and Breslau surrendered to the conqueror. Frederick, who was resolved to relieve Silesia at all hazards, now collected an army of 33,000 men,[1] composed of the remnant of Bevern's army, and his own heroes of Rossbach, to whom he addressed a spirited harangue. With this force he defeated, near Leuthen, 5th December (after an engagement which lasted only three hours), the Austrian army, 80,000 strong, under Charles of Lorraine and General Daun, and regained possession of Silesia. During the winter, several unsuccessful attempts were made by the King to negotiate a peace. The campaign of 1758 was carried on in the east by the King in person, against the Austrians and Russians (whose union he effectually prevented), and in the west by his allies, under Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, against the French. The latter general opened the campaign by driving back the French from the Elbe to the Rhine, and defeating them near Crefeld (23rd June).

(234.) This disaster, as well as all the other failures

[1] Called by the Austrians, in derision, "the Potsdam parade."

of the French, may be attributed partly to the incapacity and petty jealousies of their generals; and partly to the policy of Louis XV., who was unwilling either that the power of Austria should be increased, or Prussia be too much weakened. Meanwhile Schweidnitz, the last Silesian fortress in the occupation of the Austrians, had surrendered to Frederick, who now marched into Moravia, for the purpose of withdrawing the Austrians as far as possible from the Russians; but an irruption of the Russians into Pomerania compelled him to return to Silesia. On the 25th August, he attacked a superior Russian force (at Zorndorf, near Küstrin), which had set fire to the city of Küstrin, and defeated them, after a hard-fought and bloody engagement, in which his own loss was very considerable. For this victory, also, Frederick was mainly indebted to General Seidlitz. On his march to relieve his brother Henry, who was closely pressed by General Daun, in Saxony, Frederick was surrounded, in the middle of the night (in an unfavorable position near Hochkirch), by a superior Austrian force, and compelled to retreat, after sustaining a heavy loss. But this disaster produced no further results, for Frederick soon afterwards turned Daun's position; and, after expelling the enemy first from Silesia, and then from Saxony, had, before the end of the year, recovered all his possessions except Prussia, which was still occupied by the Russians.

(235.) The year 1759 was the most disastrous in the whole war for Frederick. His resources were gradually becoming exhausted, for it was impossible that raw recruits, or soldiers collected in haste from different parts of his dominions, could supply the places of the veterans who had fallen in the war; and this difficulty was increased by the necessity of distributing his forces over a great extent of ground. Under these unfavorable circumstances, the King was obliged to confine himself to a defensive war. An attempt was again made to prevent the union of the Russians and Austrians; but the Russian army under Soltikow, consisting of 70,000 men, advanced to the Oder, and defeated (at Kay, near Züllichau), General Weddell, who had been nominated dictator,

and then effected a junction with the Austrians under Laudon. On the 12th of August, Frederick attacked the Russians at Kunersdorf, near Frankfort on the Oder, and had already gained a considerable advantage, which he persisted in following up, notwithstanding the weariness and reluctance of his soldiers, when Laudon, who had hitherto remained inactive, suddenly charged the exhausted Prussians, and changed the fortune of the day. Eighteen thousand Prussians, among whom was Ewald von Kleist, the poet of the "Spring," were left dead on the field. Had the conqueror listened to the advice of Laudon, and marched at once to Berlin, the ruin of Prussia would have been accomplished; but it seems probable that he had received secret instructions which prevented his adopting this course. The prosecution of the war was also retarded by disputes between Soltikow on the one side, and Laudon and Daun on the other; and at last the removal of the Russians into winter quarters beyond the Vistula and the Warth, relieved Frederick from all apprehension of an attack on his eastern frontier. In Saxony, however, all the fortresses, including Dresden itself, were surrendered to General Daun; and Fink, who had endeavored to intercept the passes, and cut off Daun's army from Bohemia, was himself blockaded near Maxen, by an overwhelming body of Austrians, and compelled to surrender himself a prisoner with 13,000 men. The allies of Frederick, under the command of Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, were also unfortunate at the commencement of the campaign, having been defeated by the French at Bergen, near Frankfort on the Main. But this disgrace was afterwards (August 1) obliterated by the brilliant victory of Minden.

(236.) The commencement of the year 1760 was also disastrous for Frederick. The Russians, it is true, although Austria had promised them East Prussia as an indemnification for the expenses of the war, were inclined to relax in their exertions; but, on the other hand, General Foqué, whom the King had stationed at Landshut with 9000 men, for the defence of Silesia, was attacked at three several points by a French army three times as numerous as his own, and, after an obstinate re-

sistance, was taken prisoner, with half his troops. The King, after an ineffectual attempt to reduce Dresden, and the surrender of the fortress of Glatz to the Austrians, marched into Silesia, and encamped, with 30,000 men, at Liegnitz, on the Katzbach. The advance of the Russian army, and the scarcity of provisions, having compelled him secretly to shift his quarters, he engaged and defeated Laudon's army on the heights of Pfaffendorf (15th August), and by the promptitude with which he followed up this advantage, was enabled again to prevent the junction of the Austrians and Russians (who had been plundering Dresden for several days), and thus to rescue Silesia. After a victory (for which he was in a great measure indebted to General Ziethen) over the second Austrian army, commanded by General Daun, at Torgau, on the 3d November, Frederick regained possession of the whole of Saxony, except Dresden, and compelled the Russians to retire into winter quarters in Poland. In the west, the war was prosecuted without any important results, and merely, as it would seem, for the sake of appearances.

(237.) The hopes of peace, which were entertained at the commencement of the year 1761, were destroyed by the rejection, on the part of Austria, of the proposals of Prussia and England, and the conclusion of her long-desired alliance with Russia for the re-conquest of Silesia; but the disagreement of their generals (Bulturlin and Laudon), having prevented a combined attack on Frederick's strongly-intrenched position at Bunzelwitz (near Schweidnitz), the two armies soon separated. Scarcely, however, had the King escaped this danger, when the loss of the fortresses of Schweidnitz and Kolberg (the former to Laudon, the latter to the Russians), deprived him of the half of Silesia and Pomerania. In the west, the French appeared in imposing force, but no battle was fought, nor any important undertaking attempted.

### The years 1762 and 1763.

(238.) Frederick, who had been deserted even by England, was unexpectedly extricated from his difficulties

by the death of the Empress Elizabeth (5th January) and the accession of his enthusiastic admirer, Peter II., who not only concluded a peace with Prussia, but even commanded the Russian corps, which had hitherto acted with the Austrians, to join the Prussian army in Silesia. After reigning six months, the Emperor was assassinated, and his successor, Catherine II., immediately recalled the army of Silesia; but not until Frederick had availed himself of its presence at the battle of Burkersdorf, near Reichenbach (21st July), where Daun was defeated. After the re-taking of Schweidnitz by Frederick, the defeat of the imperial troops, near Freiberg, by his brother Henry (assisted by General Seidlitz), and the surrender of Cassel to the Duke of Brunswick, peace was concluded at Hubertsburg, a Saxon hunting seat, on the 15th February, 1763, between Prussia, Austria, and Saxony, each party being replaced in the position which it had occupied before the war; and the rank of Prussia being established as one of the five great European powers.

## § 31. *The Emperor Joseph II.*, 1765—1790. *Frederick the Great after the seven years' war.*

(239.) 1. The first partition of Poland, 1772. After the death of Augustus III. (1763), the Empress Catherine II., supported by Frederick of Prussia, prevailed on the Poles to elect, as their King, her favorite, Count Stanislaus Poniatowski, and to grant to the co-religionists of the two monarchs (Protestants and members of the Greek Church) equal rights with the members of the Church of Rome. The immediate effect of these concessions was a terrible civil war between a confederation of malcontents assembled at Bar, in Podolia, on the one side, and the new King (who was supported by Russia) on the other. Soon after the occurrence of these events, a war broke out between the Russians and Turks, in which the former greatly distinguished themselves, both by sea and land, and obtained several important advantages (independence of the Crimea, free navigation of the Turkish seas, cession of Azov, &c.). This fresh aggrandizement of a power already sufficiently formidable,

having awakened the jealousy of Austria and Prussia, the former sent an army into Poland (which was completely governed by Russian influence), for the purpose of redeeming the province of Zips, which had been pledged by Hungary to Poland in 1402; an example which was soon followed by Prussia, under pretence of establishing a sanitary cordon against the plague. In order, however, to preserve the balance of power, it was at last agreed that Poland should be divided between Russia, Prussia, and Austria.

(240.) In this first partition of Poland (5th August, 1772), *Austria*, in addition to the province of Zips, received Galicia and Lodomiria; *Russia*, the eastern part of Lithuania (as far as the Düna and the Dnieper), and *Prussia* recovered West Prussia (with the exception of Dantzic and Thorn), which had been ceded to Poland at the peace of Thorn in 1466. The King and diet were thus compelled formally to relinquish their right to a third of the kingdom.

(241.) 2. Disputed succession in Bavaria, 1778, 1779. After the death (30th December, 1777,) of Maximilian Joseph, the last Elector of Bavaria, of the younger line of the house of Wittelsbach, Charles Theodore, Elector Palatine, as head of the elder line, took possession of the Bavarian dominions, in virtue of his feudal right, and of certain family arrangements. To a portion of this territory Austria had long ago advanced a claim, which the Emperor Joseph now persuaded the Elector to recognize; but to this convention the Duke of Zweibrücken (heir presumptive to the Bavarian electorate), acting on the advice of Frederick II., refused to become a party. The invasion of Bohemia by Prussian troops, and the threats of the Empress of Russia to support Frederick, induced the Emperor, at the peace of Teschen (in Austrian Silesia), in 1779, to withdraw his claims on Bavaria, retaining only the "the quarter of the Inn," *i. e.* the country between the Inn, the Danube, and the Salza, by the annexation of which Austria obtained an uninterrupted communication with the Tyrol.

(242.) 3. Joseph II. sole Emperor, 1780—1790. The Empress Maria Theresa, whose character was a happy

union of mildness and dignity, had shared her throne, first with her husband, and subsequently with her son, Joseph II., but the reins of government had virtually remained altogether in her own hands. To this sovereign Austria was indebted for the simplification of her legal code, the regulation of her financial system, the abolition of torture, and a considerable improvement in the social condition of the serf. By the courage and perseverance of Maria Theresa, she was also enabled to maintain her position among the European powers, in spite of the opposition of her enemies, who, at the commencement of this reign, were exceedingly numerous. It was only after his mother's death that Joseph II., who, like Peter III., was an enthusiastic admirer of Frederick of Prussia, was enabled to bring forward his daring projects of reform. His understanding, naturally acute, had been improved by study and extensive foreign travel, which had given him an elevated opinion of the dignity of human nature; but the unreflecting eagerness with which he sought to carry out his plans for the improvement of his own dominions, in most instances, insured their failure. For example, his attempt to introduce, without any previous preparation, the same form of constitution and administration into every province from Belgium to Transylvania, occasioned excessive discontent among the people, whose local privileges were thus rudely violated; and his toleration of every religious sect, and the admission of the Jews to the enjoyment of political rights, produced disturbances in various quarters; whilst the suppression of several monasteries, and other sweeping ecclesiastical reforms, involved him in a quarrel with Pope Pius VI. The personal remonstrances of this pontiff, during a visit which he made to the Emperor at Vienna, in the hope of persuading him to abandon his project, were treated with the most mortifying contempt, although, after his departure, the plan was considerably modified. In order to carry into effect his favorite scheme of annexing Bavaria to the empire, he proposed (by advice of his minister Kaunitz), to the Elector, Charles Theodore, an exchange of the Austrian Netherlands for that country, promising, at the same time, to confer on the Elector the title of King of Burgundy. This pro-

posal, which was readily embraced by Charles Theodore, was rejected by his heir presumptive, the Duke of Zweibrücken, who immediately applied for assistance to Frederick II. A confederation was then formed (in 1785), under the auspices of the King of Prussia, consisting of the three Electors of Saxony, Brandenburg, and Hanover, for the conservation of the actual territorial condition of the German empire. This confederation, which was called the League of the German princes, was afterwards augmented by the accession of other princes of the empire.

(243.) 4. The administration and death of Frederick II. The commanding abilities of Frederick were displayed no less in the maintenance of peace for twenty-three years, than in his previous long and successful wars. Believing, as he did, that the most effectual mode of securing to Prussia the uninterrupted enjoyment of the rank which she had so recently assumed among the nations of Europe, was to render her formidable to her enemies, his first care was to keep on foot a well-disciplined army. For the support of this force a large sum was raised by a stricter exaction of the indirect taxes, and by several royal monopolies. At the same time he endeavored, by shortening the proceedings in the courts of justice, and by the compilation of a new civil code (which was not completed during his lifetime), to insure to his subjects a speedy and impartial administration of the laws. The welfare of his people was also promoted by the encouragement afforded to agriculture, and the eagerness with which he set on foot plans for the introduction and improvement of various manufactures. The unwearied activity of the King, who reserved to himself the right of ultimate decision on all questions of state; the mental energy which distinguished him above all the other monarchs of that period; his honest zeal for the welfare of his people; the prudence invariably displayed in the formation of his plans; and the firmness with which he adhered to a resolution once adopted; these qualities never abandoned him during the whole of his long reign of forty-six years, although it must be acknowledged that the means employed for the attainment of his objects were

not in all instances the most unexceptionable, nor the results always such as he had expected. But his greatest protection was the extraordinary penetration with which he discovered, and the tact with which he directed, the political movements of other governments. Disdaining the enjoyments of domestic life, Frederick passed his leisure hours either in the society of men of science and distinguished talent, or in the cultivation of his poetical and musical taste, and the study of philosophy and history. His preference of the French language will scarcely surprise us, if we remember the wretched state of German literature at that period.

(244.) Frederick died on the 17th August, 1786, leaving to his nephew, Frederick William II. (1786—1797), a kingdom which he had augmented by the annexation of Silesia, the country of East Friesland (after the death of the last Count, in 1744), and West Prussia, with six millions of subjects, an exchequer containing seventy-two millions of thalers, and an army of 200,000 men. Since the annexation of West Prussia he had exchanged the title of "King *in* Prussia," for that of "King *of* Prussia."

(245.) 5. The last years of Joseph II. Joseph's ecclesiastical and political reforms, which were vehemently opposed by the Belgians, headed by an advocate named Van der Noot, occasioned the separation of the Romanist Netherlands from Austria, in 1790; but in the following year (on the accession of Leopold II., 1790—1792, who restored all their privileges), the revolted provinces returned to their allegiance. A Turkish war, which had been undertaken by Joseph II., in conjunction with Catherine II., and carried on with very indifferent success, was terminated by Leopold II., who consented to restore all the territory which his predecessor had wrested from the Turks.

## § 32. *France.*

(246.) Louis XIV., whose long wars had saddled the country with a debt of 300 millions of livres ($60,000,000), and compelled him to mortgage the revenue for two years, was succeeded by his third great-grandson.

(247.) Louis XV, 1715—1774, who commenced his reign under the guardianship of the talented, but profligate, Duke (Philip) of Orleans. By the advice of his tutor and minister, the Abbé (afterwards Cardinal) Dubois, and a Scotchman named Law, an attempt was made to diminish the public burdens, by the establishment of a bank of issue, and a joint stock Mississippi company (to which the King made a grant of Louisiana); but the issue of 6000 million of bank notes and actions [shares] occasioned, as might have been expected, the bankruptcy of the whole concern, notwithstanding the ingenious precautions adopted to avert such a calamity.

*For an account of the quadruple alliance with England, the Emperor and Holland*, see page 108.

(248.) After the deaths of Cardinal Dubois and the Duke of Orleans, which happened about the same time (†† 1723), Louis assumed the reins of government, and married Mary, daughter of the dethroned sovereign, Stanislaus Lesczinsky. The management of affairs was soon left almost entirely to the King's tutor, Cardinal Fleury, (1726—1743), whose rigid economy and love of peace, in a great measure, relieved the country from the embarrassments in which it had been involved by the long wars of Louis XIV. It was with difficulty that his sanction could be obtained to the participation of France in the Polish war (see page 109), and the Austrian war of succession. The first of these wars ended in the acquisition of the duchies of Lorraine and Bar for Lesczinsky; the other commenced inauspiciously, in consequence of the niggardliness of Fleury; but, after his death, all losses were repaired by the brilliant victories of Marshal Saxe (see page 115). The weak monarch was now governed entirely by his mistresses: first, by the Marquise de Pompadour, who exercised unlimited control over the exchequer and the patronage of the crown, whilst she amused the King with every sort of diversion (in the parc aux cerfs), and sensual gratification. A complete change was now effected in the system of French politics, by the conclusion of a treaty with the court of Vienna, through the influence of Kaunitz with Madame de Pompadour. Through this alliance, France was involved in an expensive, but fruitless, war of

seven years's duration (see page 116), in addition to her maritime war with England, which also lasted seven years, and terminated in the loss of almost all the French colonies. Effects still more deplorable were produced by the King's utter want of principle, and the general depravation of morals, and contempt of religion, introduced by the so-called *school of philosophers*, headed by Voltaire, J. J. Rousseau, d'Alembert, and Diderot. Their grand object, the subversion of religion and monarchy, and the establishment, in their places, of infidelity and republican equality, was steadily advanced by the publication of works, in which all that had been hitherto esteemed sacred was held up to ridicule, and by the influence which they acquired (generally through the most unworthy means), at court, among the ministers, and in various educational establishments. In conjunction with the Jansenists, these philosophers were also called *encyclopædists*, obtained from the King and his parliament an ordonnance for *the suppression of the order of Jesuits in France*, their statutes being declared to be incompatible with the constitution of the kingdom (1764). Corsica ceded to France by Genoa (1768), see § 36. 4. Towards the close of his life, Louis was entirely under the control of a low-born mistress, whom he created Comtesse du Barry. The expenditure of this profligate woman on herself and her favorites (amounting in five years to 180 millions of francs), had brought the nation to the verge of bankruptcy, notwithstanding the imposition of heavy taxes, when the wretched King died, to the great delight of his oppressed subjects, who greeted his grandson and successor,

(249.) Louis XVI., 1774—1792, with the surname of Le Désiré. The good humour and straightforward honesty of this monarch were but an indifferent substitute for the ability and firmness required at such a crisis. The constant changes of administration (Turgot, Necker, Calonne, Brienne, Necker); the lavish expenditure of the Queen Marie Antoinette; and the assistance rendered to the revolted British colonies in North America, in the hope of recovering at least a portion of the territory lost by France during the seven years' war, had occasioned an irremediable deficit (140 millions of livres annually) in

the public accounts. To the discontent produced by these causes, the writings of the infidel philosophers, and the republican and revolutionary notions imported from America by the soldiers who had served in that quarter of the globe, may be attributed the outbreak of the French Revolution.

## § 33. *Great Britain.*

(250.) William III. was succeeded by his sister-in-law, Queen Anne (1702—1714), whose policy was dictated, during the greater part of her reign, by the Whig party, especially by the Duke of Marlborough and his Duchess. Through the influence of these ministers, a union was accomplished between England and Scotland, which thenceforth had *one* parliament; an equal system of taxation; and similar laws, in so far as this could be effected without trenching on private rights, or altering her ecclesiastical constitution. For the participation of England in the Spanish war of succession, by which her colonial possessions, trade, and influence, were extended, see § 25. The attempts of Anne, in conjunction with the Tories (after the disgrace of Marlborough), to obtain the settlement of the crown on her step-brother, the Pretender, James (III.), were frustrated by the Whigs, who insisted on maintaining the Protestant succession, and, after the death of the Queen, raised to the throne

### The House of Hanover (1714),

(251.) Commencing with George I. (1714—1727), Elector of Hanover, and grandson of James I., on the mother's side. Under the guidance of his minister, Walpole, this sovereign frustrated the repeated attempts made during his reign to bring back the Pretender; took part in the northern war; and joined the quadruple alliance. His son, George II. (1727—1760), retained the services of his father's minister, Walpole. His participation in the Austrian war of succession (see page 114), having occasioned a misunderstanding between the crown and the parliament, France availed herself of this opportunity for a last attempt to restore the exiled Stuarts; but the com-

plete overthrow (1746), of the Pretender (son of James III.), on the moor of Culloden, near Inverness, in Scotland (the last battle fought on British ground), destroyed for ever the hopes of the Jacobites. As an ally of Frederick II., George II. sent an army into Germany, for the protection of his hereditary dominions of Hanover against the French; whilst, at the same time, England carried on the *seven years' war against France*, 1756—1763. This war, which had broken out, in the first instance, in North America, in consequence of a dispute between the two nations respecting the boundary line of their respective colonies, soon extended to the other three quarters of the globe. The first enterprises of the English were unsuccessful; but the superiority of their arms was restored by Pitt (the elder), whose wise policy in the re-organization of the army and fleet, the selection of competent commanders, and the preparation of a well-considered plan of operations, produced the most brilliant results (defeat of the French at Quebec, by General Wolf, &c.). A treaty was concluded between the Bourbon courts of Spain, Naples, and Parma, by which they pledged themselves to make common cause with France; and, in consequence of the refusal of

(252.) George III. (1760—1820), to sanction Pitt's plans for an attack on Spain whilst that power was unprepared for the war, the prime minister resigned his office. Notwithstanding this untoward circumstance, however, success still attended the British arms; and, in the *peace of Paris*, in 1763, Spain surrendered Florida to England, and France the whole of Canada, her settlements on the river Senegal, and several of her colonies in the West Indies. By this accession of territory, and the acquisition, about the same time, of several important provinces in the East Indies, England was placed in the elevated position which she still occupies.

### The North American War (the Revolution), 1775—1783.

(253.) The wars carried on by Great Britain on the Continent had involved her very deeply in debt (the national debt at this date was about $700,000,000). The

Colonies in America had, of course, been partakers in the disputes of England and France, and they had contributed largely both money and men towards bringing to a successful issue that war which rendered England predominant in North America (30,000 colonial soldiers had fallen; more than $16,000,000 had been expended, of which Parliament had reimbursed about $5,000,000). The mother country had always exercised more or less control (though not without protest) in regulating the trade, &c., of the Colonies; but she had never ventured upon that course which her pecuniary necessities now impelled her to adopt. She now claimed the right to levy taxes and collect revenue in the Colonies, and accordingly the stamp act was passed and attempted to be put in force in America (1765). The Colonists, with one voice, declared that they never would submit, as freemen, to any such measures; for taxation without representation was virtually to make them slaves. The act was denounced as unconstitutional, and steadily resisted; reluctantly and ungraciously parliament the next year repealed the stamp duties. On the failure of this plan, a duty was imposed on tea (and, in the first instance, on glass, paper, and colors, 1767). This was strenuously resisted by the Colonists, a party of whom, disguised as Indians, boarded three ships laden with tea, broke open 342 chests, and emptied their contents into Boston harbor. The stringent measures adopted by England, in consequence of this act (Boston Port Bill, subversion of the ancient charter of Massachusetts, &c.), aroused the Colonies, and a congress assembled at Philadelphia in September, 1774, who passed a resolution that all commercial intercourse with the mother country should be broken off. The British government now determined to employ force, and hostilities having commenced with the battle of Lexington (ten miles north-west of Boston), April 19th, 1775, and soon after (June 17th), the battle of Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, the thirteen United States (New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia), declared themselves independent of England, July 4th, 1776. The defective discipline of

the American army was, in a great measure, counterbalanced by the extraordinary military talents of George Washington, an officer who had already distinguished himself in the French war. A defensive and commercial league was soon concluded (by the exertions of Benjamin Franklin) between France and America (1778), to which Spain and Holland afterwards became parties; whilst, at the same time, the northern powers were persuaded by Russia to unite for the maintenance of an "armed neutrality" (in which they were supported by Joseph II., Portugal, and Sicily), for the protection of the commerce of neutral powers against the belligerents.

(254.) In consequence of these movements, the war was carried into the East and West Indies; and the Americans, emboldened by the encouragement and (to some extent) support afforded by their allies, refused to listen to the proposals of the English government for the re-establishment of peace (1778), although the terms offered were of so favorable a character, that two years before they would have been readily embraced (representation in parliament, extension of privileges of trade, &c.); nothing short of entire independence was now deemed satisfactory. After twenty-one, for the most part indecisive, engagements, the English remained masters of the sea, the Spanish navy having been nearly annihilated in a battle off Cape St. Vincent; and the French, after several successful encounters, sustaining a total defeat off the island of Guadaloupe (1782). The attempts of the Spaniards and French to re-take Gibraltar, by means of floating batteries, were frustrated by the brave defence of General Elliot, who fired red-hot balls on the enemy's vessels. Only Minorca and West Florida were taken by the English. By land, Washington, in conjunction with General Lafayette, decided the event of the war by surrounding and taking prisoners a body of English troops, under Lord Cornwallis (Oct. 17th, 1781); and at the peace of Versailles (Jan. 20th, 1783), England was compelled not only to recognize the independence of the thirteen United States, but to restore Florida and Minorca to Spain, and Tobago to France. On the other hand, the Dutch, who at last found themselves fighting single-handed against the English,

were compelled to purchase peace by the sacrifice of a portion of their East Indian possessions (September, 1783). At the close of the war, the United States found themselves very deeply in debt (to foreign creditors $8,000,000; to citizens and the army more than $30,000,000), and placed in embarrassing circumstances in regard to the establishment of the new government. The various difficulties were happily surmounted by the wisdom and patriotism of the noble men of those days, and, in September, 1787, the Federal Constitution was elaborated and submitted to the respective States for their adoption. Between December, 1787, and July, 1788, eleven States acceded to the new Constitution, and it accordingly went into force after this date. The Constitution made provision for the legislative, judicial, and executive authority; the first was vested in *Congress*, consisting of the Senate (two from each State) and the House of Representatives (the number of representatives in proportion to the population of the State); the second in the Supreme Court of the United States and Circuit or District Courts for specific purposes; and the third in the President (aided by a cabinet and the advice and consent of the Senate in certain cases). General Washington was unanimously elected the first President (1789—1797), and inaugurated on the 30th April, 1789, in the city of New-York.

### War in the East Indies (1767—1784).

(255.) Since the dismemberment of the empire of the Great Mogul, through the defection of the Nabobs (1739), several attempts had been made by European nations (the French in the first instance, and then the English) to turn the disputes of those petty sovereigns to their own advantage. By the victories and conquests of Lord Clive, England had not only been placed in an advantageous position, as regarded her rival, but had obtained possession of Bengal from the (titular) Great Mogul. In order to check the progress of the British arms, a union was formed (not without suspicion of French influence) between Hyder Ali, Sultan of Mysore, the Marattas, and the Nizam of Golconda, whilst, at precisely the same moment, the French

concluded an alliance with the revolted British colonies in North America. In this critical state of affairs, the supremacy of the East India Company was maintained, through the prudent as well as energetic policy of the governor-general, Warren Hastings. The conclusion of a separate peace with the Marattas and the re-establishment of friendly relations with France having deprived Tippoo Sahib, son and successor of Hyder Ali (†1782), of all his allies, that sovereign was compelled to purchase peace (1784) by the sacrifice of his former conquests.

(256.) The attention of the British government having been directed to the rapidly increasing power of the East India Company, a bill (called the East India Bill) was brought in by the younger Pitt (minister, 1783—1801), which provided that thenceforward all the military, financial, and political business of India should be transacted by a commission nominated by the Crown, the company still retaining its direction of commercial affairs. An addition was made to the colonial possessions of England by the discoveries of Captain James Cook (1768—1780), who thrice circumnavigated the globe. In his first voyage, he visited the dangerous eastern coast of New Holland; in the second, he discovered several islands in the South Sea, but was disappointed in his expectation of finding a southern continent, although he penetrated to the 71st degree of south latitude; and in the third, he surveyed Behring's Straits, and was slain by the natives of Owyhee, one of the Sandwich Islands.

### § 34. *Spain under the Bourbons, from* 1701.

(257.) At the peace of Utrecht, Spain had been compelled to cede Naples, Sardinia, Milan, and the Netherlands to Austria, and Sicily to Savoy. The attempts of Cardinal Alberoni to regain these possessions were frustated by the quadruple alliance (see p. 108); but at the close of the Polish war of succession the two Sicilies reverted to the Infant Don Carlos, and after the Austrian war of succession Parma was settled on the Infant Don Philip. Under Philip V. (1701—1746) the nation (with the exception of Navarre and Biscay) lost all its constitu-

tional privileges. Charles III. (1759—1788), who had been involved in the seven years' war between France and England, by the Bourbon family compact, and been unsuccessful against Portugal by land, and England by sea, was compelled, at the peace of Paris, to cede Florida to England; but at the peace of Versailles he recovered both that province and Minorca. Two attacks on Algiers, and an attempt to reconquer Gibraltar, produced only disappointment and disgrace. In the year 1767 an ordonnance was issued for the expulsion of the Jesuits from the Spanish dominions, an insurrection of the common people at Madrid having been attributed to their machinations.

§ 35. *Portugal under the House of Braganza, from* 1640.

(258.) Under the first kings of the House of Braganza, Portugal had not only maintained her independence against Spain, but had recovered (at first by successful wars, and subsequently by conventions) the colonies of which she had been deprived by the Dutch (e. g. Brazil). But the country, fettered by a commercial league with England, and bankrupted by the extravagance of the court of John V., notwithstanding its rich gold and diamond mines of Brazil, was on the verge of utter ruin, when a complete revolution in the commercial system was effected by the energetic measures of Carvalho, Marquis of Pombal, minister of Joseph I. (1750—1777).

(259.) In the prosecution of his plan for rendering Portugal independent of other countries for her supplies of food, Pombal destroyed several vineyards in order to promote the cultivation of wheat on a more extensive scale; whilst, at the same time, protection was afforded to native industry by the imposition of prohibitory duties on foreign produce. The western quarter of Lisbon, which had been destroyed by a terrible earthquake on the 1st of November, 1755, when 30,000 persons perished, was rebuilt with greater magnificence and regularity. To meet this and other expenses, considerable sums were raised by the confiscation of estates in America, which had been granted to the nobility at an earlier period. An attempt on the king's life afforded the minister an excuse for rid-

ding himself of his most active opponents, the Jesuits, who were condemned as instigators of this treasonable plot, and banished the country by a royal ordonnance in 1759. On the accession of Maria I. (daughter of Joseph I.), Pombal was removed from his office, brought to trial, and condemned to suffer death as a traitor, but was subsequently pardoned. Almost all the ordonnances issued during his administration were repealed, with the exception of the decree for the banishment of the Jesuits, which remained in force, notwithstanding repeated attempts on the part of the order to obtain its reversal.

## § 36. *Italy.*

(260.) 1. *Possessions of the House of Hapsburg.*— Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, and Milan continued to be dependencies of Spain as long as the throne of that country was occupied by the family of Hapsburg; but on the accession of the Bourbons, they were ceded, together with Mantua, to Austria (at the peace of Utrecht). Sicily, in the first instance, was given to Savoy, and soon afterwards exchanged for Sardinia (1720).

(261.) At the termination of the war of the Polish succession.

2. *The kingdom of the two Sicilies* regained its independence under a collateral branch of the Spanish Bourbon family (1738). An earthquake in Calabria and Sicily, Feb. 5th, 1783.

(262.) 3. *The Duchies.*—a. Savoy, which had fallen into the hands of the French in Louis Fourteenth's third war of spoliation, and again in the war of the Spanish succession, obtained the kingdom of Sicily at the peace of Utrecht; but was soon afterwards (1720) compelled to exchange it for Sardinia. The territories of the duchy were afterwards augmented by the addition of Montferrat and the annexation, at three several periods (in the Spanish, Polish, and Austrian wars of succession), of portions of the duchy of Milan. b. Mantua, after the extinction of the house of Nevers (1707), became a province of Austria. c. Modena remained subject to the house of Este. d. Parma and Piacenza, after the extinction of the

house of Farnese, were settled on the Spanish Infant Don Carlos; and after his accession to the throne of the two Sicilies, were annexed to Austria, which restored the two duchies to a Spanish Infant (Don Philip) at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

(263.) 4. *The Republics.*—a. Venice was deprived of Candia by the Turks; but at the peace of Carlowitz she obtained from them a great part of Dalmatia and the peninsula of the Morea, which last was soon afterwards again wrested from her (compare page 108). b. Genoa, with the assistance of the French, suppressed an insurrection of the ill-treated Corsicans, headed by Baron Theodore von Neuhof, a Westphalian, who had been nominated King of Corsica. Neuhof fled to London, where he died in extreme poverty in 1756. A fresh insurrection, of a still more formidable character, having broken out, under the brave Paoli, the Genoese senate sold the island of Corsica to the French in 1768. This transfer was vehemently opposed by the Corsicans; but in the following year they were compelled to submit, and Paoli, like his predecessor, sought an asylum in England, which, at a later period, aided him in an attempt to deliver his country from the French yoke.

(264.) 5. The grand duchy of *Tuscany*, after the extinction of the Medici family (1737) descended to Duke Francis of Lorraine, and on his elevation to the imperial throne, became a possession of the house of Austria. When Joseph II. was elected Roman king, the grand duchy was settled on his brother Leopold and his descendants as the patrimony of the second sons of that house.

(265.) 6. *The states of the Church* recovered Benevento and Corvo from Naples.

## § 37. *Denmark.*

(266.) Denmark, with Norway and Iceland, to which, after the northern war, Schleswig was annexed by treaty, and Greenland by colonization, enjoyed, after the termination of this war, uninterrupted peace during a period of eighty years (under Frederick IV., Christian IV., Frederick V., and Christian VII.); and, under the admirable

administration of Count Bernstorf, the Elder, became a flourishing kingdom. But in the reign of the feeble-minded Christian VII. this able minister was supplanted by the royal physician, Struensee, a favorite of the Queen, who was elevated to the rank of count and privy counsellor, and exercised almost arbitrary authority, although profoundly ignorant of the Danish laws, constitution and language. His ill-considered and violent innovations occasioned universal discontent, and at the expiration of two years the minister (with his friend Brandt) ended his life on the scaffold (1772). The disputes between Denmark and the ducal line of Gottorp were terminated by the cession of Oldenburg, which was erected into a duchy and settled on the junior line of Gottorp, the elder having been raised to the Russian throne. At the same time Holstein was annexed to Denmark.

## § 38. *Sweden from the termination of the Northern War.*

(267.) Sweden had not only lost her fairest provinces in the northern war, but had sunk lower and lower during the disputes of the aristocrats, who had governed the kingdom since the accession of Ulrica Eleanora, and were divided into the factions of the "caps" and "hats;" the former being in the interest of Russia, the latter of France. A precipitate attempt on the part of the "hats" (at the instigation of France) to recover the provinces wrested from Sweden by the Russians, occasioned the loss (in the discreditable peace of Åbo[1], 1743) of a portion of Finland (as far as the river Kymene), and the elevation to the Swedish throne of a collateral branch of the house of Holstein Gottorp (1751—1818). Under the first king of this house (Adolphus Frederick, formerly Bishop of Lübeck) the disputes of the nobles continued, and the power of the crown was still further restricted by certain additions to the constitution of 1720. The exchequer was also drained by the expenditure incurred in consequence of the participation of Sweden in the seven years' war. But this aristocratic tyranny was successfully re-

[1] Pronounced "Aubo."

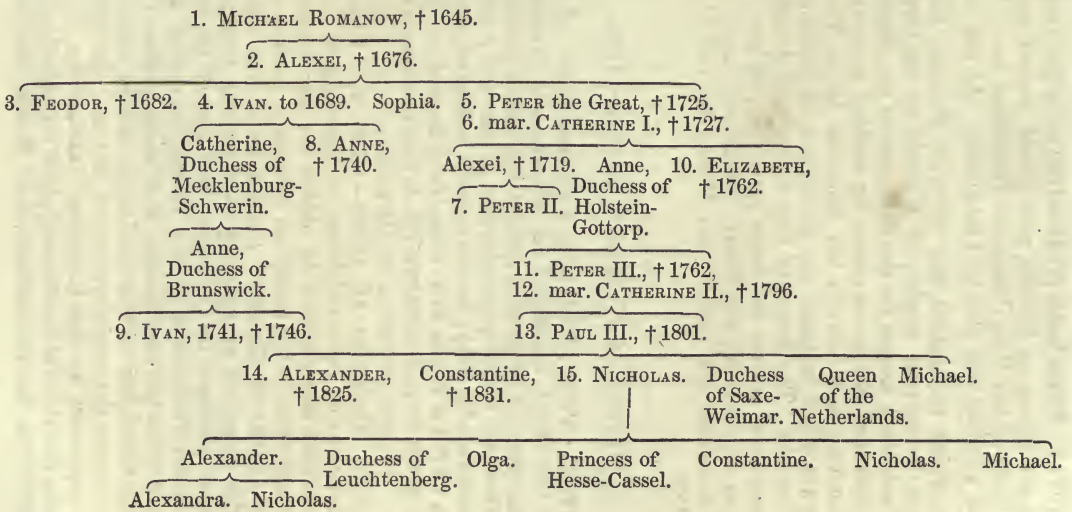
sisted by his brave and ambitious son, Gustavus III. 1771—1792), who effected a complete but bloodless revolution by the aid of the military. The executive authority was now vested in the king, but without the power of levying taxes or engaging in aggressive wars without the consent of the estates of his realm, who possessed also the legislative authority. His voluntary renunciation of absolute power, the affability of his manners, the improved administration of justice, the general revival of national prosperity, and the encouragement given to trade and manufactures, as well as to the arts and sciences (establishment of an academy of science), rendered this sovereign exceedingly popular. The nobles alone persisted in their opposition, which had already assumed a distinct and dangerous character, when the king renewed (1789) the alliance with the Porte, and, in defiance of the constitution, took part with the Turks in the war against the Russians (see page 108) without consulting the estates of his kingdom. Probably his motive for this irregular proceeding was a desire to re-conquer the eastern coast of the Baltic, and to gain for Sweden a military reputation which might increase her political influence among the powers of Europe.

(268.) On the refusal of the generals of his army to obey this unconstitutional order, Gustavus, notwithstanding the vehement opposition of the nobles, persuaded a Diet to pass an act, empowering the king to engage in an offensive war without the consent of the estates. Meanwhile Russia had gained time for preparation: and the war, both by land and sea, terminated ingloriously for Sweden, whose public burdens were greatly increased by the expense of carrying it on. The king now lost the affection and confidence of his people, and before he could execute his plan for the re-establishment of Louis XVI. in the rights of which he had been deprived by the revolutionists, fell by the hand of an assassin, named Ankerström, who had formerly been arrested on an unjust charge, and now avenged himself by shooting the king at a masqued ball in the opera-house at Stockholm.

## § 39. *Russia.*

(269.) During the northern war Peter the Great had made considerable progress in the civilization of his subjects, and had built the city of St. Petersburg, which was peopled by a forced immigration, and elevated to the rank of the second capital of the Russian empire (1703). He had also travelled a second time through most of the countries of Europe. But on this, as on a former occasion, the enemies of reform availed themselves of his absence for a demonstration in favor of the ancient Russian institutions. At the head of this party was his own son Alexei, who was condemned to death by a court assembled soon after his father's return, and executed within a few hours. After the war, Peter assumed the title of *Emperor of all the Russias*, and by a law passed in 1722, secured to the reigning sovereign the right of nominating his successor without any regard to the claims of blood. He died, the victim of his excesses, in the year 1725. The short reigns of his wife, Catherine I., who was governed by her favorite, Menzikoff (1725—1727), and of his grandson, Peter II. (1727—1730), were followed by the succession of a daughter of Ivan, elder brother of Peter the Great. Anne (Ivanovna [daughter of Ivan] 1730—1740), under the guidance of her ministers, Münnich and Ostermann, and her favorite Biron, laid the foundation of the influence of Russia in Poland by her successful opposition to the restoration of Stanislaus Lesczinsky (see page 110). Then she joined Austria in a war against the Turks (see page 110); but, notwithstanding the superiority of the Russian arms under Field-marshal Münnich (the "Eugene of the North"), nothing was gained (in consequence of the hasty conclusion of a separate peace by Austria) beyond the recognition by the Porte of the Empress's title. The nephew and successor of Anne (Ivan III.) was set aside, after reigning one year, in favor of the youngest daughter of Peter the Great.

## § 40. *The Houses of Romanow and Holstein-Gottorp, in Russia.*



(271.) Elizabeth (1741—1762) who banished Münnich and others to Siberia, and placed herself under the guidance of the Vice-Chancellor Bestuchef, until the year 1758, when he was also sent into exile. At the peace of Åbo, which terminated the war with Sweden, Elizabeth added the eastern portion of Finland to her territories, and exhibited Russia for the first time in the character of an influential European power, by sending an army to the Rhine to resist her ally the Empress Maria Theresa, a measure which hastened the conclusion of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle. The bonds of this union with Austria were strengthened during the seven years' war, by her personal dislike of Frederick the Great. Elizabeth nominated as her successor her sister's son Peter, duke of Holstein-Gottorp.

### House of Holstein-Gottorp, 1762.

(272.) Peter III. (1762), a personal friend of Frederick the Great, concluded an alliance with Prussia, and commenced his reign with several important reforms (the abolition of torture, organization of the army after the Prussian model, &c.); but six months had scarcely expired, when he fell a victim to a conspiracy, headed by his own wife, whom he had threatened with imprisonment in a convent. He was succeeded by his widow,

(273.) Catherine II. (1762—1796), who followed in the footsteps of Peter the Great, endeavoring by a display of external magnificence to obtain for her empire (the most extensive in the world) an influential position among the kingdoms of Europe. *Poland*, which was distracted by the struggles of opposing factions, was treated as a Russian province by Catherine, who placed her favorite Stanislaus Poniatowski on the throne, prevented any improvement in the constitution, and, under pretence of protecting the rights of the dissidents, excited a cruel civil war between the confederation of Bar and the king, who was supported hy the Russians. Of all the European powers, *the Porte* alone acknowledged its apprehensions of danger from the encroachments of Russia, and met the

refusal of Catherine to withdraw her troops from Poland with a prompt declaration of war.

(274.) In this *first Russian-Turkish war* (1768—1774) the Russians were for the most part superior to the more numerous but badly officered and imperfectly disciplined troops of the Sultan; and the whole Turkish fleet was defeated off Scio, and burnt by a Russian squadron, which had been dispatched to the Archipelago. In consequence of these disasters, the Porte was compelled to seek the intervention of Austria and Prussia, and through their mediation an armistice was concluded between the Turks and Russians; but no sooner were the two mediating powers pacified by *the first partition of Poland* (1772), than the war broke out afresh. At first the Russians were unsuccessful against the Turks, whilst at the same time their own country was distracted by a civil war (which lasted two years), occasioned by the rebellion of a Cossack named Pugatschew, who gave himself out as Peter III.; but the blockade of the Grand Vizier in Schumla, enabled them at length to negotiate a peace, which was concluded at Kutschukkainardge, in 1774, on conditions exceedingly favorable to Russia, the Turks conceding to that power the free navigation of their waters, and the independence of the Tartars in the Crimea. In Poland also, after the first partition of that kingdom, Catherine exerted herself for the conservation of their ancient usages (an elective monarchy, liberum veto, serfdom, &c.). Among the avowed favorites of Catherine, was a man of coarse manners and debauched character, named *Potemkin*, who had been promoted from the rank of sergeant-major in the imperial guard to that of minister of war, and been created a prince of the German empire by Joseph II. For sixteen years (until his death in 1791) this unworthy favorite continued to exercise the most despotic authority, treating the nobles, and even his imperial mistress herself, with insolence, squandering the public treasure, and putting his fellow-subjects to death without the slightest compunction.

(275.) Two magnificent projects occupied the attention of Catherine after the first Turkish war, 1. The establishment of an uninterrupted intercourse between

different nations, even in time of war. With this view she instituted a system of *armed neutrality*, to which the two northern powers, as well as the Emperor, Prussia, and Portugal, became parties. 2. *The expulsion of the Turks from Europe, and the establishment of a new Greek or eastern empire.* The first step taken by Potemkin towards the accomplishment of this plan (devised by Münnich during his twenty years' banishment in Siberia), was the incorporation into the Russian empire of the Crimea, which had been independent since the last peace. During a progress of the Empress through southern Russia, Potemkin persuaded her that this country, which he had ruined and well-nigh depopulated, was in a flourishing condition; a deception which obtained for its author the nickname of "the Taurian" (from the ancient name of the Crimea—Taurica Chersonesus). It was during this progress that Catherine and the Emperor Joseph II. met at Cherson, a circumstance which excited the suspicion of the Sultan, who imagined that a partition of the Turkish empire had been arranged between the two monarchs. Relying on the support of England, Prussia, and Sweden, the Porte immediately declared war against Russia.

(276.) In this *second Russian-Turkish war* (1787—1792) the Turks, who had at first obtained some advantage, were defeated in two great battles by Potemkin and his lieutenant Suwarrow, supported by an Austrian force under the command of the Emperor himself; but after the death of Joseph II. a peace was concluded between Austria and the Porte (with which Prussia had already formed an alliance), and Gustavus III. of Sweden invaded Russian Finland. The war was continued by Catherine, notwithstanding the threats of England and Prussia, but after the death of Potemkin, she was compelled by the exhausted state of her exchequer to conclude a peace (at Jassy) with the Porte, and content herself with the territory between the Bug and Dniester. For an account of the defensive war against *Sweden*, see page 140.

(277.) The measures of domestic improvement commenced by Peter I. were carried out by Catherine with

the same spirit which she had displayed in her intercourse with foreign powers. She divided the empire into smaller and more manageable governments; limited the authority of the governors (by intrusting the administration of the laws and the collection of the revenue to commissioners expressly appointed for that purpose, and commanding that no Russian subject should be tried except by his peers); and improved the condition of the serf. The number of the middle classes was increased by the settlement of foreigners (principally Germans), in cities built expressly for that purpose; agriculture and manufacturing industry were encouraged, the trade of the south of Europe thrown open by the first peace with Turkey, arrangements made for the education of all ranks, an academy of sciences founded, the navy placed on a respectable footing, and toleration granted to all religious sects.

### § 41. *The Ottoman, or Osmanic Empire.*

(278.) The inferiority of the Turks to their neighbors in the arts of war as well as of peace, the weakness of their Sultans, who passed their lives in the Seraglio, leaving the administration of public affairs to unprincipled viziers and favorites, and the wars with Russia and other powers, in which they were almost invariably unsuccessful, notwithstanding their numbers and personal bravery—all these causes must necessarily have sapped the foundations of the Osmanic empire, had it not been sustained by the jealousy with which the European powers regarded one another.

## THIRD PERIOD.

From the outbreak of the French Revolution to the present time. 1789—1848.

### § 42. *Causes and immediate occasion of the Revolution.*

(279.) I. Chief causes. 1. *The enormous public debt*, contracted in the reign of Louis XIV., augmented

to a fearful extent by the wars of Louis XV. and the profligacy of his mistresses, and still further increased under Louis XVI. by the extravagance of Marie Antoinette, and the expenses incurred in the American war.

(280.) 2. *The unequal distribution of the public burdens*, which were borne almost exclusively by the citizens and peasants; the clergy and nobility, notwithstanding their possession of the highest and most lucrative offices, immense wealth and important privileges, scarcely contributing any thing to the public purse.

(281.) 3. The persevering endeavors of the so-called philosophers, or Encyclopædists, to overthrow both Church and State. (Comp. page 128.)

(282.) 4. *The tyrannical and capricious government of the kings and the ministers* since the time of Louis XIV., especially as regarded the lettres-de-cachet (or warrants for the secret arrest of persons obnoxious to the court), with which the offices even of the inferior functionaries of the state were abundantly supplied.

(283.) II. The immediate occasion of the revolutionary outbreak was *the impossibility of avoiding a national bankruptcy*, the national debt having been greatly augmented by the expenses of the American war; during the progress of which the French soldiers had taken up the wildest notions of liberty and equality. To meet these difficulties, Turgot, Louis Sixteenth's first minister of finance, proposed the establishment of free trade in the interior, the removal of all feudal burdens, a more equal and just system of taxation, and greater economy in the expenditure of the court; but the opposition of the privileged classes compelled him to resign. The same fate awaited his successor Necker, who added the enormous sum of 530 millions to the national debt. In the year 1787, Calonne, finding that the annual deficit now amounted to 140 millions, and that no help could be obtained except from the privileged classes, called together the Notables, an assembly composed almost entirely of nobles and the superior clergy, and laid before them a plan for a more general system of taxation, in which the privileged classes were included. Through the influence of

the Queen, this minister also was removed from office, and succeeded by the Comte de Brienne, Archbishop of Thoulouse, who dismissed the intractable Notables, and summoned a parliament, which also refused to sanction the imposition of fresh taxes, the right of taxation being vested, as they pretended, exclusively in the states general. A proposal for a new loan having been equally unsuccessful, and the embarrassments of the government becoming daily more alarming, Brienne was dismissed, and Necker persuaded a second time to accept the office of minister of finance. As a last expedient, the states general, which had not met since the year 1614, were summoned to assemble at Versailles. But at their very first meeting a dispute arose respecting the manner of taking the votes: the third estate, which was more numerous than the other two together,[1] contending that the voting ought to be by numbers, not by estates. After several fruitless negotiations, the third estate (by the advice of the Abbé Sieyes) declared itself a National Assembly (June 17), a proceeding which may be considered the commencement of the Revolution. It was to no purpose that the King, acting by the advice of the other two estates, called on this assembly to dissolve itself. The president, Bailly, finding their usual place of meeting beset by soldiers, adjourned the assembly to a tennis-court, and persuaded the deputies to take an oath, that they would not separate until they had given to France a permanent constitution.

## § 43. *The constituent National Assembly.*

From June 17, 1789, to Sept. 21, 1791.

(284.) A. At Versailles. Notwithstanding the promises made by the King in a "royal session" (June 23), the separation of the estates was still opposed by the tiers état, who were soon joined by a majority of the clergy. On learning this, the King issued a proclama-

[1] There were 308 deputies of the clergy, 285 of the nobles, and 621 persons of the third estate. The twenty-two representatives of the nobility of Brittany did not appear.

tion calling on the two first chambers to unite with the third, a command which they obeyed with evident reluctance. The attention of this assembly was directed rather to the formation of a *constitution* than to a settlement of the financial question. The assembling of a large body of troops (30,000 men) between Paris and Versailles, and the dismissal of Necker, occasioned a rising of the Parisian populace (13th and 14th July) who were excited by the most inflammatory speeches delivered by Camille-Desmoulins, Marat, and others; a movement which was speedily followed by the establishment of a National Guard in Paris, and the *storming of the Bastille.* The troops were then disbanded, Necker recalled, Lafayette nominated commandant of the National Guard, and the fickle populace appeased by the appearance of Louis XVI. with the tri-colored national cockade, at the Hôtel de Ville. In the first panic produced by this "insurrection," many of the higher nobility emigrated. The King's second brother, the Comte d'Artois (Charles X.), and many others, fled to Cologne, Sardinia, &c., and assembled a force on the frontiers for the invasion of France and restoration of the ancient order of things. The national assembly commenced their proceedings by the abolition of the feudal system (4th and 5th August), and all other privileges of the nobles and clergy, without granting them any indemnification. Then followed a declaration of the rights of man, as a preliminary to the formation of a constitution. They next voted themselves a *permanent* body, the assembly, consisting of only *one* chamber, to be renewed every two years, and a veto to be allowed to the King, the effect of which would be the postponement of any decision for four years (two sessions). To all these resolutions they demanded the assent of the King.

(285.) Reports of a re-actionary movement on the part of the court, combined with the refusal of Louis XVI. to ratify, without modification, several articles of the constitution, occasioned fresh discontents, which were aggravated by the scarcity of food, and burst forth on Oct. 5, when a tumultuous mob of 8000 fishwomen proceeded to Versailles, and attacked the palace (Oct. 6,) although the

King had supplied the capital with provisions, and signified his readiness to accept the disputed articles. By the exertions of Lafayette, the King and Marie Antoinette (whose danger was the most imminent) were rescued from the fury of the rabble; but the royal family were compelled to follow the women to Paris, whither the national assembly adjourned its session, after the defection of more than 200 of its members.

(286.) B. In Paris. The questions which next occupied the attention of the assembly (the members of which were now divided, according to the part of the chamber in which they sat, into the *right and left parties*) were the representation of the people and the government of the country. The result of their deliberations was the division of France into eighty-three departments (subdivided into districts and cantons, with orographical and hydrographical boundaries, in place of the old provinces, which were connected in various ways with the crown, and enjoyed peculiar privileges. The primary elective franchise was conferred on persons of a certain age, who possessed the requisite property qualification; but was not at first granted to the Jews. These "active citizens," as they were called, chose electors, who returned 745 representatives to the legislative assembly, and acted at the same time as administrative counsellors for the departments and districts. The municipal authorities were chosen from the body of "active citizens." To meet their pecuniary difficulties, it was resolved, on the motion of Talleyrand (Bishop of Autun), and Mirabeau, to appropriate *all ecclesiastical property* (3000 millions of francs) to the *service of the nation*, the state undertaking the maintenance of the clergy. In order to hasten the sale of the church lands, it was also agreed, on the recommendation of Mirabeau, to issue paper money (assignats), which after a time became utterly valueless, in consequence of the enormous quantity in circulation (45,000 millions). Acts were passed forbidding conventual vows, and *suppressing all monastic orders*, except those engaged in education and the care of the sick. A reform was also effected in *the administration of justice*, by a separation of the judicial from the executive authority,

and the establishment of trial by jury in criminal cases. These sweeping measures were soon followed by the *abolition of hereditary nobility* (with their titles, coats of arms, and liveries), and the *civil constitution of the clergy*. The King, who had already lost almost all the crown lands, as well as the privilege of making war or concluding peace without consulting his subjects, was now required to ratify all the acts of the assembly, and on the anniversary of the storming of the Bastille, at a grand national festival in the Champ de Mars, took an oath to observe the new constitution. Among the members of the national assembly were formed Clubs, which met for the purpose of preparing resolutions to be proposed in the assembly. Of these the most important was the club of the Jacobins (so called from their place of meeting, a monastery belonging to the suppressed order of Jacobins at Paris), which kept up a regular communication with the patriotic clubs in the provinces, and at last became so powerful as not merely to prepare resolutions, but to decide beforehand what propositions should be adopted by the great body of representatives. After the resignation of Necker, in consequence of a popular commotion, the "right" sustained a series of defeats in the chamber, and soon afterwards the republican party, released from all restraint by the death of Mirabeau, openly proclaimed its intention of overthrowing the monarchy.

(287.) The King, who had ratified with manifest reluctance some recent acts of the national assembly (respecting the ejection of such of the clergy as refused to take the civic oath, the abolition of his own right of pardoning criminals, &c.), now attempted to escape to an encampment on the frontier, in order to commence a counter-revolution; but at Varennes he was recognized by the postmaster (Drouet), and conveyed a prisoner to Paris. Meanwhile the royal authority was suspended; but after a long discussion, a majority of the left side, in conjunction with the moderate party, resolved to retain a constitutional monarchy, and replace Louis on the throne. On this occasion, even the Jacobins opposed the republican party. The national assembly terminated its labors by a second revision of the constitution, and, after obtaining

the assent of the King to all its proceedings, closed the session on Sept. 30.

### § 44. *The Legislative Assembly.*

From Oct. 1, 1791, to Sept. 21, 1792.

(288.) In the new legislative assembly, which consisted of *one* chamber and 745 deputies, the *Feuillants*,[1] or defenders of constitutional monarchy, were the weaker, and the republican *Jacobins* the stronger party. The *Girondists* (i. e. deputies from the departments of the Garonne and Gironde) composed the moderate party, whilst the *Cordeliers* (so called from their place of meeting in the church of the barefooted friars), under the direction of Danton, Marat, Camille-Desmoulins, &c., disseminated their democratic and anarchical notions, and spoke more and more openly of a republic. The highest places in the municipality and courts of justice were filled with Jacobins, such as Pétion, Manuel, Robespierre, Danton, &c. After several changes, the King at last formed a Girondist administation (Dumouriez, Roland, &c.), which compelled him (in consequence of the demonstrations of the emigrants on the German frontier, and the appearance of an Austrian army of observation in Belgium,) to declare war (in conjunction with the national assembly) against Francis II., "King of Hungary and Bohemia."

(289.) On June 20, 1792, the King, who had refused his assent to two acts of the assembly (for the banishment of the nonjuring priests, and the formation of a camp in the neighborhood of Paris), was attacked by an infuriated mob (the sans culottes), in the palace of the Tuileries. The rapid advance of the enemy, and the publication of a threatening manifesto by the Duke of Brunswick, so alarmed and irritated the populace, that they besieged the King a second time (Aug. 10) in the Tuileries, with the avowed intention of compelling him to abdicate. Louis now threw himself into the arms of the

[1] So called from their place of meeting, the convent of the Feuillants at Paris. They belonged originally to the Jacobin club, from which they receded soon after the return of the King.

national assembly, which passed a decree suspending the royal authority, agreed to summon a national convention for the settlement of the future constitution, and committed the King and his family to the Temple. Lafayette, who had attempted to escape from the danger which threatened him in consequence of his defence of the constitution, was arrested by the Austrians on the frontier, and conveyed to Olmütz. The Jacobins, availing themselves of the discontents occasioned by the surrender of Verdun to the Prussians, persuaded the rabble to rid themselves of the imprisoned adherents of the old régime (principally nobles and priests), by a five days' massacre at Paris, Versailles, Lyons, &c. (2nd to 7th Sept.) The legislative assembly, which had witnessed these horrors in silence, now dissolved itself, and was succeeded by the national convention, consisting of 749 newly-elected deputies.

## II. The Republic.

### § 45. *The National Convention.*

From Sept. 21, 1792, to Oct. 26, 1795.

(290.) I. Trial and execution of the King.

The national convention was distracted by the struggles of two opposite parties—the moderate party, or *Girondists*, and the *Montagnards*, or *Jacobins*, led by Robespierre, Danton, and Marat. From the very commencement the Jacobins were the stronger party, not so much on account of their numbers, as their courage, unanimity, and unscrupulous employment of the most desperate means for the attainment of their object. In the first session of the convention the monarchy was abolished, and France declared a republic, "one and indivisible." In spite of the resistance offered by the Girondists to the treasonable designs of the Montagnards, Louis Capet, as they called the unhappy King, was compelled to appear at the bar of the national convention, who acted at once as judges and accusers. Almost all the

acts of his government, from the suspension of the national assembly on the 20th June, 1789, being represented as criminal, he was found guilty by a majority of 683 members to 38, of "conspiring against the liberty of the nation, and endangering the public safety." Of the 721 deputies, 361 voted unconditionally for a sentence of death. The remaining 360 were divided—the majority voting for imprisonment or banishment, and the minority for the infliction of capital punishment, but not immediately. The application of the King's counsel (Malesherbes, Desèze, and Tronchet) for an appeal to the people having been rejected, the sentence was carried into execution on the Place Louis XV., January 21, 1793.

(291.) The execution of the King excited the indignation of foreign countries, as well as of a large party at home. England and Spain having recalled their ambassadors, the republic immediately declared war against those countries, and also against the hereditary Statthalder of Holland, as an ally of England. At the same time the French people in the departments south of the Loire, particularly in La Vendée, were so irritated at a conscription, that they rose *en masse* against the republican government, and for a long time made head against the raw troops of the convention, whom they were enabled to keep at bay by the swampy nature of the ground.

(292.) 2. Overthrow of the Gironde. The death of the King was the signal for a deadly struggle between the two parties in the national convention, viz., the Montagnards, or mountain party (a faction composed of Cordeliers and Jacobins), and the Girondists. The former having been foiled in their plan of nominating their leader, Philip, Duke of Orleans (now called Philip Egalité), protector of the republic, the convention intrusted the entire executive authority to a committee of public safety (April 6). The Montagnards, furious at their defeat, now armed the rabble of Paris, who besieged the members of the convention in their chamber (1st and 2nd June), and compelled them to issue an order for the arrest of thirty-four Girondists. Almost all the rest fled into the departments, and organized a widely-ramified in-

insurrection against the so-called Reign of Terror which had just commenced.

### 3. The reign of terror after the fall of the Gironde.

From June 2, 1793, to July 24, 1794.

(293.) The national convention, after drawing up and circulating in the departments the plan of a purely democratic constitution, now occupied itself with preparations for the suppression of the insurrectionists and the trial of the Girondist prisoners, as well as the few other members of that party who were still resident at Paris. Meanwhile Marat was murdered by a young woman named Charlotte Corday.

(294.) At this period, when the arms of the republic were almost every where unsuccessful both at home and abroad, it was proposed by Carnot, immediately after his appointment as a member of the committee of public safety, that all male persons, between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five, who were capable of bearing arms, should be required to serve as soldiers. So promptly was this edict carried into effect, that within a very short time fourteen armies (1,200,000 men) were ready for the field. The aspect of affairs was now completely changed; Caen, Bordeaux, and Marseilles, surrendered after a feeble resistance; Lyons was reduced almost to a heap of ruins; and Toulon, after a fierce struggle (in which Napoleon Bonaparte won his first laurels), was re-conquered from the English. In La Vendée the insurgents, notwithstanding their obstinate courage, were several times defeated, the prisoners cruelly murdered (Carrier's *Noyades*, drownings),[1] and the country laid waste with fire and sword by the twelve infernal columns, as they were called. At the same time the republican armies on the frontiers, under the command for the most part of young and untried generals, were several times victorious over the allies (see § 41), and the revolutionary government at home re-

[1] An infamous wretch, named Carrier, massacred in cold blood those who had surrendered; he sunk in the sea (at Nantes) boats filled with 1500 men, women, and children; tied men and women together, and threw them into the Loire; &c.—S.

moved its most active opponents by numerous and hasty executions. Among the earliest victims were the Queen, Marie Antoinette, the (twenty) Girondist prisoners, and the Duke of Orleans. Even of those Girondists, who had escaped from Paris, when their fellow-deputies were arrested, the majority sooner or later lost their lives.

(295.) The example of Paris was followed by the departments, where revolutionary committees were formed, amounting at last to the enormous number of 20,000, and revolutionary armies, composed of thieves, robbers, and murderers, marched from place to place, carrying with them guillotines for the execution of persons condemned by the revolutionary tribunals. In order to destroy every reminiscence of former times, a new republican calendar was introduced, which commenced with Sept. 22, 1792, as the first day of the republic, and contained twelve months, to which they gave the names of Vendémaire, Brumaire, Frimaire, Nivose, Ventose, Pluviose, Germinal, Floreal, Prairial, Messidor, Thermidor, and Fructidor. The churches were desecrated and plundered, the Christian religion formally abolished, and the worship of the goddess of reason established in its place. At the same time every monument of art, which could in any way remind men of monarchy, was barbarously demolished; the royal vaults in the abbey of St. Denys were destroyed, and the bodies of the kings mutilated and thrown into ditches. A plan of Robespierre's for destroying the two parties opposed to his policy, by a collision with one another, was attended with complete success, nineteen of the leaders of the Jacobin party being condemned and executed for taking part in the insurrection, whilst on the other hand Danton and his friends, Desmoulins, Lacroix, &c., were guillotined for alleged treasonable practices against the republic. By thus rendering his opponents objects of suspicion, and at the same time parading his own virtue, unselfishness, and honesty, before the eyes of the French people, Robespierre became dictator of France (April 1 to July 27, 1794). The moderate party having been by these means annihilated, the convention proceeded to pass a law, dispensing with the evidence of witnesses on

the trials of persons accused of treason against the republic. The result of this iniquitous enactment was the execution of 1400 persons in the forty-five days between the passing of the law and the fall of Robespierre. At length, the discontent caused by these arbitrary proceedings burst forth in the convention itself. Robespierre was charged with conspiring against the republic, arrested, condemned without being heard in his own defence, and guillotined, with twenty-two of his adherents, on the following day (July 28).

(296.) 4. The Re-action. The fall of the Terrorist chief produced an immediate re-actionary movement. The struggle continued, it is true, for a time between the Moderates (Thermidorians) and Terrorists; but after the execution of Carrier, and the institution of an inquiry into the conduct of the most notorious Terrorists, the moderate party obtained the ascendency. The two committees (of public welfare and public safety) were now entirely in their hands, the Jacobin club was suppressed, seventy-three Girondists, who had survived the massacre of their brethren, were recalled into the convention, freedom of religious belief and of the press were established, and a commission, with Sièyes at the head, was appointed to draw up a less democratic constitution. The Royalists, after the death of Louis XVII., a child of ten years old, who died in the Temple, in consequence of ill-treatment received from a shoemaker named Simon, had conferred the title of King (Louis XVIII.) on a brother of Louis XVI., then resident at Verona, An army of emigrants, which had landed from British ships, on the coast of Brittany, near Quiberon, and joined the Chouans in La Vendée, was almost annihilated by General Hoche. By the new (third) constitution, the executive power was lodged in a directory of five, and the legislative in two chambers, viz., the council of 500 which proposed the laws, and the council of (250) Ancients, who examined and confirmed them. The members of the council of Ancients were required to be at least forty years old. In order to frustrate the attempts made by the royalists to obtain a majority in the legislative and executive bodies, it was ordered that at the next election the elec-

tors should return at least two-thirds of the present members of convention. Some attempts were again made by the royalists to overthrow the republic, but their forces were defeated by a detachment of troops under Napoleon Bonaparte. The councils were then formed without opposition on the plan proposed by the convention, and the new constitution established.

## § 46. *The first Coalition against France* (1792—1797).

(297.) 1. Commencement of the War with Austria and Prussia (1792).—A declaration of their readiness to adopt measures for the emancipation of Louis XVI. having been signed at Pillnitz, by Leopold II. and Frederick William II., and speedily followed by the conclusion of a formal alliance for the protection of the German empire against the encroachments of France; the unhappy French monarch was compelled by his rebellious subjects to declare war against Francis II., the successor of Leopold on the imperial throne (see page 151). The whole conduct of this war was confided to his ally, Frederick William II., by the Emperor, who promised to assist the Prussians with detachments of Austrian troops. The grand army, composed entirely of Prussian soldiers, advanced, under the command of Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, along the left bank of the Moselle, *towards Champagne*. After the capture of Longwy and Verdun by the Prussians, the command in chief of the French army was conferred on Dumouriez, whose vigorous measures, aided by the long-continued rains, and the sickliness and starvation of the Prussian troops, compelled the enemy to retire, after unsuccessfully attacking the French at Valmy. The Prussians having retreated across the Rhine, Dumouriez next attacked the *Austrians* (who had entered France from Belgium, and made an unsuccessful attempt on Lisle); and, after an engagement which lasted two days, in the neighborhood of Jemappes (near Mons), the French army, numbering, it is said, 80,000 men (against 14,000?), became masters of the Austrian Netherlands The French then penetrated (by Aix-la-Chapelle) as far as Roer. Meanwhile another French force had conquered Savoy and

Nice from the King of Sardinia (who had joined the coalition), and (under Custine) had taken the fortified city of Mainz (Mayence).

(298.) 2. War against the grand coalition, to the peace of Bâle (1793—1795).—After the execution of Louis XVI., all the European powers, with the exception of Sweden, Denmark, Turkey, and the Swiss confederation, formed a grand coalition against France, headed by England (under the administration of Pitt).

(299.) a. The war *in Belgium*, on the *Lower Rhine and in Holland*.—The Austrians opened the campaign of 1793 with the *re-conquest of Belgium*. Whilst Dumouriez was invading Holland from Belgium, the Austrians (under the Prince of Coburg) had defeated the French (who had penetrated as far as Roer), near Aldenhoven (March 1), and driven them back to the Maas. Having received intelligence from Paris of this movement, Dumouriez quitted Holland, and advanced to the assistance of the defeated army. On the 18th of March he lost the battle of Noerwinden, and, in consequence, the whole of Belgium; whilst the Prussians (under Kalkreuth) regained possession of Mainz. Dumouriez, who had long been dissatisfied with the proceedings of the Mountain party, proposed to his army the restoration of monarchy in France, and, on their refusing to follow him, went over to the Austrians, and soon afterwards took refuge in England. The advantage which the French derived from their superior numbers (in consequence of the conscription), and from the revival by Carnot of the old system, of forming in masses instead of lines, enabled Jourdan, after twice defeating the Austrians at Wattignies (Oct. 15 and 16, 1793), and once at Fleurus (where the Austrian position was watched from an air-balloon), gradually to drive the Austrians out of the Netherlands, and compel them to recross the Rhine. Having reached the Main, the Austrian army halted, gave battle to Jourdan (near Höchst), and compelled him to return across the Rhine into France. From Belgium, Pichegru, taking advantage of an unusually severe winter, and the support of an anti-Orange party, invaded Holland, and, after the flight of the hereditary Stattholder, established (1795) a Batavian Republic,

which concluded an alliance offensive and defensive with France.

(300.) b. In the war *on the Upper and Middle Rhine* the French were at first unfortunate: but a dispute soon afterwards arising between the Austrians and Prussians, and the Prussian army being weakened by the sending several detachments into Poland, whilst, on the other hand, the French had united the armies of the Moselle and Rhine, the allies were compelled, notwithstanding some advantages gained in the neighborhood of Kaiserlautern, to abandon all their conquests except Luxemburg and Mainz (which remained in the hands of the Germans), and recross to the right bank of the Rhine. Prussia concluded a separate peace (1795) at Bâle, and consented to leave her trans-Rhenish provinces in the hands of the French, until peace was proclaimed between France and the empire. *Tuscany* had already (Feb. 9) concluded a peace with the republic; and was followed by Spain, on the advance of the French to the borders of Old Castille. The Spanish government not only consented to recognize the French republic a European power, but was mean enough to purchase the withdrawal of the French troops from Spain, by the cession of the Spanish portion of St. Domingo. For his services in negotiating this peace, the King conferred on his favorite Godoy, the title of "Prince of the Peace" ("Principe de la Paz"). In the *naval war* alone, which began with the capture of Toulon by an English and Spanish fleet, the French were compelled to acknowledge the superiority of the *English*, who defeated a French fleet off Ushant, and wrested from the republic most of its colonies in the East and West Indies (and, for a short time, Corsica).

(301.) 3. Continuation of the war against Austria, the German empire, England, Naples, and Sardinia (1796—1797).—In order to compel Austria and the empire to conclude a peace, the Directory renewed the war, at the suggestion of Carnot, with a threefold attack on Austria. In the spring of 1796, two armies marched from France into Germany; the first (the army of the Sambre and Meuse), under Jourdan, from the Lower Rhine into Franconia; the second, under Moreau

(who had replaced Pichegru, in consequence of the suspicious conduct of the latter at the siege of Mainz), across the Upper Rhine through Swabia and Bavaria; whilst a third (under Napoleon Bonaparte) was ordered to advance from Italy into Austria, through the Tyrol.

(302.) The campaign of the French in *Germany* began auspiciously, the two armies advancing rapidly as far as Bavaria; but here the Archduke Charles (brother of the Emperor Francis II.), who had concentrated his forces by judiciously retreating before Jourdan, as far as the frontiers of Bohemia, and had also received reinforcements from the interior, assumed the offensive, and defeated Jourdan at Amburg and Würzburg so decidedly, that the French general was unable to rally his scattered forces, until he reached the Sieg, where he laid down the command. The Archduke now directed his march against Moreau, who avoided an engagement with a superior force by a masterly retreat to the Upper Rhine. In the year 1797, Hoche (near Neuwied) and Moreau again crossed the Rhine, but the intelligence of the armistice concluded by Napoleon (see page 163) checked their further advance.

(303.) In *Italy*, the triumph of the French arms was complete, under Napoleon Bonaparte (then in his twenty-seventh year), who had received from the Director Barras the hand of the widowed Duchess Josephine Beauharnais, together with the command in chief of the Italian army. At the head of an army of 40,000 men, Napoleon entered Italy between the Alps and Apennines, defeated a more numerous and better appointed Austrian force (under Beaulieu, a veteran of seventy-two), at Montenotte (April 12) separated by the victory of Millesimo (a collective name for the battles fought between April 13 and 15) the Sardinian from the Austrian army, and compelled (after the victory of Mondovi) the King of Sardinia (Victor Amadeus) to cede Savoy and Nice to the republic, and admit French garrisons into all the most important fortresses of Piedmont.

Charles Bonaparte, † 1783.
married Lætitia Ramolini, † 1836.

- Joseph, King of Spain, Comte de Survilliers, † 1844.
- Napoleon, born 1769; Emperor, 1804–14; † 1821; married— 1. Josephine Beauharnais. 2. Maria Louisa of Austria.
- Lucien, Prince of Canino, † 1840.
- Louis, King of Holland, Comte de S. Leu, † 1846.
- Caroline, mar. Murat, King of Naples. † 1839.
- Jerome, King of Westphalia, Duc de Montfort.

Josephine's children by Beauharnais. 1. Eugene, Viceroy of Italy, † 1824, as Duke of Leuchtenberg. 2. Hortense, mar. Louis Bonaparte, † 1833.

Son of Napoleon and Maria Louisa. The King of Rome, † 1832, as Duke of Reichstadt.

(305.) Napoleon then pursued the retreating Austrians across the Po, stormed the bridge of Lodi, and entered Milan. The Dukes of Modena and Parma purchased an insecure armistice by heavy contributions, and the sacrifice of several treasures of art. Having driven back Beaulieu as far as the passes of the Tyrol, Napoleon (during the interval which must elapse before he could procure a

battering train sufficiently strong for an attack on Mantua, the only fortress still remaining in the hands of the Austrians) marched into central Italy, a movement which compelled the court of Naples to declare itself neutral, and forced the Pope, who was threatened with an attack in his own capital, to purchase the forbearance of the French, by the sacrifice of considerable sums of money and treasures of art, together with the cities of Ferrara and Bologna. The Austrians were still in possession of Mantua, which stands in the midst of a lake formed by the waters of the Mincio, and is surrounded by extensive marshes. After four ineffectual attempts had been made to raise the siege, General Wurmser deemed further resistance useless, and surrendered the city to the French, on Feb, 2, 1797. The first of these attempts were made by the veteran Wurmser, who quitted Mantua, in order to form a junction with Quosdanowich, but was defeated near Castiglione, and driven back to the valley of the Etsch; the second by Wurmser and Davidowich, the former of whom was defeated at Bassano, the latter at Roveredo. Wurmser then threw himself into Mantua, which was closely invested by the French. In the third attempt, the armies of Alvinzi and Davidowich were defeated before they could effect a junction; the first at Arcola (where Napoleon, with a standard in his hand, stormed the bridge at the head of his grenadiers), the other at Rivoli. After the defeat of a fourth army with immense loss, in a second engagement at Rivoli, the garrison of Mantua capitulated.

(306.) During this siege, the Duke of Modena was accused by Napoleon of having supplied the garrison with provisions, and deprived of his duchy, which now formed, in conjunction with the two papal legations of Ferrara and Bologna, a French province, called the Cispadane Republic. After the surrender of Mantua, the Pope, who had been making preparations for an attack on the French, was compelled to purchase an inglorious peace (at Tolentino), by the sacrifice of Avignon and the Ramagna, and the payment of fifteen millions of livres.

(307.) Having thus secured his rear, Napoleon advanced to meet the Archduke Charles, who retired before him through Carinthia and Styria to Judenburg (within

eighteen German miles of Vienna); but, being cut off from Italy in consequence of insurrections in the Tyrol and the Venetian states, the republican general concluded, first an armistice (at Leoben), and then, after long negotiations, a peace with Austria, at Campo Formio, on Oct. 17, 1797. The Netherlands were given up to the French, and Lombardy, with a part of the Venetian territory, Modena, and the three legations, became the Cisalpine Republic, which was governed by a board of five directors. In return for these sacrifices the Emperor received the republican city of Venice, with its continental territory, ar far as the Etsch, and was permitted to retain Istria and Dalmatia, which had been wrested from the Venetians by Austria during the armistice.

(308.) The Venetian islands on the coast of Greece (Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, &c.) were ceded to France. The Duke of Modena received the Breisgau from Austria, as a compensation for the loss of his duchy. It was also agreed that a congress should be held at Rastadt, for the conclusion of peace between France and the German empire. Genoa was compelled to receive a democratic constitution, and was styled the Ligurian Republic. The war with England was carried on languidly, in consequence of the wretched state of the French marine.

## § 47. *Eastern Europe.*

(309.) 1. Fall of Poland.—Russia, being engaged at the same time in wars with Turkey and Sweden, the Poles deemed this a favorable opportunity for emancipating themselves from the Russian yoke, and remedying the defects of the constitution, which had been guaranteed to them by Russia. Encouraged by the promise of assistance from Prussia, the Polish nation proclaimed, on May 3, 1791, a new constitution, by which the *liberum veto* was abrogated, and the throne declared hereditary; but no sooner had Russia concluded a peace with the Porte, than the Empress instigated the enemies of Polish independence (Potocki and others), to form a confederation for the restoration of the ancient constitution. At the same time, Poland was invaded by a Russian army, to which

the undisciplined troops commanded by Joseph Poniatowski (nephew of the king), and Thaddæus Kosciuszko, offered a feeble and ineffectual resistance. Terrified by these hostile demonstrations on the part of Russia, the King became a party to the confederation of Targowitz, forbade any further resistance, and gave his assent to the abrogation of the new constitution.

(310.) Meanwhile the King of Prussia, anxious to avoid a war with Russia and France at the same time, not only refused to render further assistance to the Poles, but even invaded their country, with the avowed object of stemming the tide of Jacobinism, and issued a proclamation, stating that the safety of his dominions required the restriction within narrower bounds of the territory of the Polish republic. To encourage Prussia in her resistance to the French revolutionists, and prevent her entertaining any further thoughts of rendering assistance to the Poles, a second partition of Poland was arranged between Russia and Prussia (1793), the former power receiving the half of Lithuania (4000 sq. [German] miles), and the latter the greater part of Great Poland (southern Prussia), with the cities of Dantzic and Thorn (altogether 1000 sq. miles).[1] Early in the following spring, the Poles again took up arms, put to death or made prisoners the Russian soldiers who composed the garrison at Warsaw, and chose Kosciuszko to be their leader.

(311.) On receiving intelligence of this outbreak, Frederick William II. immediately entered Poland at the head of a Prussian army, defeated Kosciuszko and stormed Cracow, but was compelled to abandon the siege of Warsaw, in consequence of an insurrection in Southern Prussia. Meanwhile Poland was invaded by a considerable Austrian force and two Russian armies, under Fersen and Suwarrow. To prevent the junction of these Russian armies, Kosciuszko attacked General Fersen, at Maciejowice, but was defeated and taken prisoner († in Switzerland, in 1817). The city of Prague was stormed by Suwarrow, and the struggle terminated by the capitulation of War-

[1] The German mile is of two descriptions, the long and the short: the long mile is equal to 10,126 yards; the short, 6,859 yards.—S.

saw, and the abdication of King Stanislaus Poniatowski († 1798, at St. Petersburg). At length, after protracted negotiations, a third and final partition of Poland was arranged between the three powers (1795), the Vistula to separate Prussia and Austria; the Bug, Austria and Russia; and the Niemen, Prussia and Russia. Warsaw was given to Prussia.

(312.) 2. Prussia.—Frederick William II. (1786—1797) took an active part in the disastrous war against France in 1792, as well as in the Polish war of 1794. The former cost him his possessions on the left bank of the Rhine; whilst in the latter he acquired, besides the cities of Dantzic and Thorn, a fresh portion of Poland, out of which were formed the provinces of Southern and New Prussia, separated from one another by the river Vistula. A small part of this territory was added to Silesia. Frederick became possessor also of the principalities of Anspach and Baireuth, which had been ceded to the electoral line by the last Brandenburg-Franconian Margrave, in 1792. Frederick William II. was succeeded, in 1797, by his son, Frederick William III., who endeavored, by the maintenance of peace, to replenish the exchequer, which had been exhausted by the wars of his predecessor.

(313.) In Russia, Catherine II. was succeeded by her son, Paul I. (1796—1801); and in Sweden, Gustavus III. by his son, Gustavus IV. (1792—1809).

## § 48. *The French Directory.*

(Oct. 27, 1795—Dec. 15, 1799.)

(314.) The five directors (among whom were Rewbel, Barras, and Carnot) found the finances of the republic completely exhausted, the assignats having become valueless since the termination of the reign of terror. To meet this difficulty, a new description of paper money (territorial mandates, *i. e.* bills exchangeable for portions of the national landed property) was issued, to the extent of 2400 millions. But the public had long since abandoned all confidence in paper money, and after a few months the mandates lost even the slight value which they had origi-

nally possessed, and occasioned a second time the ruin of thousands.

(315.) The failure of these measures, and the contempt in which the directory was held, on account of its wavering policy, occasioned the formation, in the councils of the Ancients and of the 500, of a royalist opposition, composed of adherents of the constitution of 1791. At the same time, a party was formed in the directory itself, by Carnot and Barthélémy, against their three colleagues. After a long and violent struggle between the re-action party and the republicans, the latter, with the assistance of the army, arrested and banished all their adversaries (except Carnot and Barthélémy, who saved themselves by flight), and annulled several of the acts passed by the royalist re-action party.

(316.) Finding it necessary to engage the nation in foreign wars in order to withdraw public attention from the ruin which threatened them at home, the directory broke off the negotiations which it had commenced with England, and voted the establishment of an "army of England," under General Bonaparte, whom they hoped to withdraw from the capital, by giving him a distant command. Whilst the assemblage of troops in all the seaport towns of the northwest of France seemed to indicate an intention of invading England, Bonaparte was secretly making preparations in the southern ports for an expedition against Egypt, intending, after subduing and colonizing that country, to attack the English in the East Indies, where Tippoo Sahib had renewed the war, which terminated (1799) in the ruin of the kingdom of Mysore, and the extension of the British dominions in India.

### *Bonaparte's Expedition against Egypt and Syria.*

(1798 and 1799.)

(317.) On May 19, 1798, Bonaparte, at the head of 35,000 men, the flower of his victorious Italian army, sailed from Toulon, accompanied by his brother Louis, Generals Berthier and Kleber (who were afterwards joined by Dessaix), and a host of distinguished savants and artists. Notwithstanding the vigilance of Nelson, the French

fleet was joined by flotillas from Corsica and Civita Vecchia, and Bonaparte, after wresting Malta from the Knights of St. John, landed at Alexandria on July 1, and stormed the city. After enduring many fatigues and hardships in crossing the desert, the French army reached Cairo, which they occupied, after defeating, in the battle of the Pyramids, the Mamelukes (descendants of slaves from the Caucasus), whose twenty-three Beys governed Egypt as vassals of the Porte. Meanwhile Dessaix advanced as far as the southern frontier of Egypt, towards Syene: and Napoleon was already occupied in the organization of the conquered territory, when intelligence reached him that the French fleet had been annihilated by Admiral Nelson, in the great battle of Aboukir (Aug. 1), and that the French army, in consequence of this disaster, was cut off from all communication with France. About the same time the populace of Cairo, irritated beyond endurance by the extortions and cruelties of the French, rose *en masse* against their oppressors, but were defeated with terrible slaughter. The Porte having declared war against France, in consequence of these proceedings, Bonaparte, anticipating the movements of Achmet Djezzar, the blood-thirsty pasha of Syria (who was making preparations for an invasion of Egypt), entered that country (February, 1799) and stormed Jaffa (where 3200 Turkish prisoners were massacred), but was foiled in his attempts on Acre, the key of Syria, which was defended by the English Commodore, Sir Sydney Smith, and two French engineers. After eight unsuccessful attacks, Bonaparte, who had received intelligence of an insurrection in Upper Egypt, and the appearance of a Turkish fleet on the coast, withdrew his army, which had suffered grievously from the plague, and returned across the Syrian desert to Egypt.

(318.) Having defeated the Turkish army, which had landed at Aboukir, Bonaparte quitted Egypt in August, 1799, leaving Kleber in command of the army, and, after a second time baffling the vigilance of the British admiral, arrived in France. Kleber, after gaining a brilliant victory (with 10,000 men) over the Grand Vizier, who had advanced from Syria as far as Heliopolis, at the head of more than 70,000 men, was assassinated (on the day of

the battle of Marengo, June 14, 1800), by a fanatic named Solyman, of Aleppo. Meanwhile Dessaix had returned to France.

(319.) Establishment of new republics.—The violent proceedings of the directory had produced a fresh coalition of the European powers against France. At Rome, the death of a French general (Duphot), during a popular insurrection which he had headed, afforded the directory a welcome pretext for sending an army, under Berthier, to occupy the States of the Church; and establishing (with the consent, as they pretended, of the Roman people) a Roman Republic, governed, after the French model, by six consuls, a senate, and a tribunate. Soon after this revolution the Pope, Pius VI., was removed to Valence, in France, where he died in 1799. Measures equally unjustifiable were adopted for the destruction of the Swiss Confederation. The inhabitants of the Pays de Vaud were encouraged to renounce their allegiance to the aristocratic Canton of Berne (the capital of which was occupied by a French garrison), and the whole of Switzerland (with the exception of Geneva, which was incorporated into the French republic as the department of Léman) was proclaimed a republic, with a democratic government of directors, a senate, and a grand council. In conformity with a *secret* article introduced, with the consent of Austria, into the treaty of Campo Formio, the German empire was deprived of all its possessions on the left bank of the Rhine, and Piedmont was taken from the King of Sardinia. For the war of the second Coalition against France, see § 49.

(320.) Dissolution of the Directory.—Under the administration, at once feeble and despotic, of a government so incapable as the French directory, the discontent produced by the imposition of the most oppressive taxes, as well as by the insecurity of property, the stagnation of their home trade, the corrupt administration of justice, and the destruction of their ecclesiastical establishment, had rapidly increased during the absence of Bonaparte in Egypt. On the arrival, therefore, of that general in France, the nation eagerly welcomed him as their deliverer, and empowered him, in conjunction with Sièyes,

and a majority of the council of Ancients, to effect such a change in the constitution as should place the supreme power in his hands. An attempt, which was discovered and frustrated, to overthrow the new constitution, furnished the two councils with an excuse for adjourning their session to St. Cloud, which was guarded by a military force under Bonaparte. Of the five directors, two (Sièyes and Roger-Ducos) supported Bonaparte, on condition of their being appointed consuls; Barras resigned; and the two others were thrown into prison, on the 18th Brumaire (Nov. 9, 1799). On the following day, the contest between the republicans and Bonapartists was carried on with such violence in the assembly of Five Hundred, of which Lucien Bonaparte was president (for the month Brumaire), that Napoleon almost despaired of success; but, by the exertions of himself and his brother Lucien (who spread a report that the republicans intended to assassinate the general), the co-operation of the army was secured, and Bonaparte, at the head of a large force, entered the hall in which the Five Hundred were assembled, and compelled them to terminate their session. The three directors were then nominated a provisional government by their adherents in the two councils, and a commission was appointed to prepare a new (fourth) constitution. On Dec. 24, Bonaparte was appointed first Consul for ten years, with two colleagues, Cambacères and Lebrun, who were to act merely as his advisers. All projects of law were to be submitted by the Consuls to a tribunate of 100 members, for their advice; and to a legislative corps of 300, for confirmation or rejection (without debate).

## § 49. *War of the second Coalition against France.*

(1799—1802.)

(321.) The Emperor had ceded, as we have already mentioned, the left bank of the Rhine to France, in accordance with the secret articles in the treaty of Campo Formio, Salzburg and a considerable portion of Bavaria being promised to him as a compensation. An imperial deputation, which protested against this alienation of German

territory at the congress of Rastadt, was compelled not only to acquiesce in the decision of the congress, but even to sanction the secularization of all the ecclesiastical seignories of Germany, by way of indemnification to the imperial cities and princes on the left bank of the Rhine. Meanwhile a new, and, in some respects, unnatural coalition had been formed (during the absence of Bonaparte in Syria and Egypt) between England, the Russian Emperor Paul (on whom the Knights of Malta had conferred the grand mastership of their order after their expulsion from the island), the Porte (in consequence of the attack on Egypt), Austria (on account of the establishment of republics in the States of the Church and in Switzerland), and Naples. In consequence of the formation of this coalition, the negotiations for peace were broken off, and the Congress of Rastadt terminated with the mysterious assassination of the French plenipotentiaries (1799)—Bebret, Bonnier, and Roberjot. Most of the German princes of the empire, especially the spiritual, who saw no other chance of reversing the secularization, determined to take part in the war, whilst the northern sovereigns, including Frederick William III. of Prussia, observed a strict neutrality.

(322.) The plan of the allies was to send a *Russo-Austrian* army, under Suwarrow and Melas, into Italy; a *Russo-English*, under the Duke of York, into the Netherlands; and an *Austrian*, under the Archduke Charles, into Southern Germany and Switzerland; for the purpose of expelling the French from all those countries. The Neapolitans (under Mack) commenced the war with an invasion of the Roman republic, from which they were soon compelled to retire. On the advance of the French, the King of Naples fled to Sicily, leaving his capital in the hands of General Championnet, who changed the kingdom into a Parthenopœan Republic (Jan. 25, 1799). The directory then declared war against the allies, and dispatched an army to the Rhine, under Bernadotte; another to the Danube, under Jourdan (who was soon followed by Moreau); a third into Italy, under Scherer; and a fourth into Switzerland, under Massena, who wrested the country of the Grisons from Austria, and established a

communication between the French armies in Italy and in Southern Germany. Macdonald was also stationed at Naples, and Brune in Holland.

(323.) 1. The War in Italy.—Before the arrival of the Russians, the Austrian army, under General Kray, had defeated Scherer, who was endeavoring to force the passage of the Etsch, and were in the act of attacking his successor Moreau, near Cassano, when the arrival of Suwarrow completed the discomfiture of the French. Lombardy and Piedmont were occupied by Russian troops; the Cisalpine republic abolished; and a French army, under Macdonald (who had quitted Naples, in the hope of effecting a junction with Moreau), was defeated after three days' hard fighting on the banks of the Trebia: whereupon the ancient constitution was re-established at Naples, and soon afterwards at Rome (under Pius VII.), and in Tuscany. After defeating a French army, under Joubert, who fell in the action, Suwarrow crossed the Alps, for the purpose of driving the French out of Switzerland. At the end of the year, 1799, nothing remained to the French of their Italian conquests except Genoa; but in the following year Berthier, assisted by Bonaparte (in the famous campaign of forty days), led an army of reserve, as it was called, in several divisions over the passes of the two St. Bernards, the Simplon and the St. Gothard, into Italy (where Massena was blockaded in Genoa), and took the Austrians in the rear, whilst Bonaparte entered Milan, and re-established the republic. No choice therefore remained for Melas, but to throw himself into Genoa (of which the Austrians had obtained possession), or cut his way through Bonaparte's army. Having resolved to adopt the latter course, he engaged the French at Marengo, near Alessandria, and had already repulsed the enemy, when the battle was renewed by Dessaix, whose death served only to stimulate his soldiers to greater exertions. The Austrians now gave way in their turn, and their discomfiture was completed by the arrival of Kellerman, who suffered Melas to withdraw the remains of his army from the field, on condition of his evacuating all the fortresses of Piedmont, Genoa, Lombardy, and the Legations, and retiring to Mantua. Bonaparte now established provisional govern-

ments in Milan, Turin, and Genoa, and, having nominated Massena commander-in-chief of the army of Italy, returned to Paris.

(324.) 2. The War in Germany and Switzerland.—Here, also, the Austrians were at first victorious. The Archduke Charles drove the army of the Danube across the Rhine, and compelled Massena, who had entered the country of the Grisons, to retreat beyond Zürich. Meanwhile Suwarrow, after several obstinate combats with the French (in the valley of the Reuss, at the Devil's-bridge, &c.), had entered Switzerland by the pass of St. Gothard; but finding the country in the occupation of Soult and Massena (who had defeated a division of the Austrian army and a Russian army under Korsakow), he was compelled, after a succession of skirmishes and harassing marches, to withdraw his exhausted troops into the country of the Grisons, and return to Russia through Upper Swabia. In the year 1800, Moreau drove the Austrians (under Kray) back to the Inn, and after defeating the Archduke Charles in the forest of Hohenlinden (Dec. 3), advanced to within twenty German miles of Vienna.

(325.) On Feb. 9, 1801, peace was concluded at Luneville, the Emperor, on the part of Austria, ratifying all the essential conditions of the peace of Campo Formio, repeating the stipulations entered into at Rastadt, and leaving the left bank of the Rhine in possession of the French. A deputation of eight princes (five of whom were Electors), appointed to consider the question of indemnification to those princes who had been deprived of their dominions during the war, was compelled, after two years spent in negotiation, to accept a plan proposed by the French and Russian governments. By this arrangement the hereditary princes of the empire were indemnified for their losses, partly by a grant of secularized Church lands, and partly by forty-two mediatized[1] imperial cities; the Grand Duke of Tuscany received Salzburg as a compensation for the cession of his territory

[1] The smaller German sovereignties were annexed to larger contiguous states; this is what is meant by mediatization. They were *mediately* though not immediately dependent on the empire. —S.

to the Duke of Parma, and the Duke of Modena obtained the Breisgau. In this division, the countries most favored were Prussia, Bavaria, Hesse-Darmstadt, Baden, and Würtemberg. For the two last, with the new grand duchy of Salzburg and Hesse-Cassel, four new electorates were founded, making the total number of electors ten (Cologne and Trèves having been deprived of the dignity). The unmediatized cities were Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen, Frankfort, Nürnberg, and Augsburg.

(326.) 1. Prussia received the bishoprics of Praderborn and Hildesheim, the portion of Thuringia belonging to Mainz, a part of Münster, several abbeys (Quedlinburg, Essen, Werden, &c.) and imperial cities (Mühhausen, Nordhausen, Goslar, &c.). 2. Bavaria in return for the palatinate (on both sides of the Rhine), and the duchies of Jülich and Zweibrücken, obtained the bishoprics of Würzburg, Bamberg, Freisingen, and Augsburg (the *city* of Augsburg remained unmediatized). 3. Hesse shared with Nassau all that remained of the archbishoprics of Cologne, Trèves, and Mainz. 4. Baden was indebted to the relationship between its Grand Duke and the Emperor of Russia for the whole of the palatinate on the right bank of the Rhine, the bishopric of Constance, and the remains of the bishoprics of Spires, Bâsle, and Strasburg. 5. Würtemberg was more than indemnified for her losses in Alsace, by receiving several Swabian bishoprics and imperial cities. 6. Austria obtained the bishoprics of Trent and Brixen, as an indemnification for her cession of the Breisgau. 7. The Duke of Parma received Tuscany, with the title of King of Etruria, as a compensation for the cession of his hereditary dominions to France. 8. Naples purchased peace by the sacrifice of some portion of her territory, and consented to close her ports against the English, and admit French garrisons into some of her maritime towns (in order to secure a place of embarkation for Egypt). Bonaparte was appointed president of the Cisalpine (now called the Italian) republic. In Switzerland, six new cantons, viz., the Grisons, Aargau, Vaud, St. Gall, Thurgau, and Tessin were added to the thirteen which already existed. Vallais was annexed to France, on account of the road across the Simplon.

(327.) 3. The War with England.—After the establishment of the Batavian republic, and the escape of the hereditary Stattholder to England, the commerce of Holland had been grievously crippled by the English, whilst at the same time the country itself was distracted by the contentions of the republican and Orange parties. At this crisis an English fleet, with the Prince of Orange on board, having appeared off the mouth of the Helder, the Batavian fleet immediately joined the invaders; but the incapacity and dilatoriness of the Duke of York, who arrived soon afterwards with an Anglo-Russian fleet, occasioned the failure of the whole undertaking. The supremacy of England in the Mediterranean was secured by the conquest of Malta, and the evacuation of Egypt by the French, in accordance with the capitulation concluded by Menou, in 1801; but the refusal of the English government to deliver up Malta to the Emperor Paul, as Grand Master of the Order, having produced a rupture with Russia, that power immediately revived the armed maritime neutrality (in conjunction with Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia), and England avenged herself by the bombardment of Copenhagen. The sudden death of the Emperor Paul (who was succeeded by Alexander I. 1801—1825), and the resignation of Pitt, afforded a favorable opportunity for the termination of hostilities. In October, 1801, peace was concluded by Russia with France and England, and on March 25, in the following year, the English government, at the peace of Amiens, relinquished (in return for the recognition by France of the republic of the seven Ionian isles) all her conquests except Trinidad and the Dutch settlements in Ceylon, engaging, at the same time, to restore Malta to the Order, a promise which was never fulfilled. To this treaty the Porte became also a party on June 25.

## § 50. *The Consular Government of Napoleon Bonaparte.*

(From Nov. 9, 1799, to May 18, 1804.)

(328.) After securing peace with foreign powers on terms exceedingly advantageous and honorable to France, the first Consul next directed his attention to the restoration of tranquillity at home, and endeavored by a wise

moderation to reconcile the various parties in the state. At the same time, however, it daily became more apparent that his ultimate object was to establish an absolute monarchy. Liberty of speech and writing was more and more restricted, whilst the discovery of conspiracies, such, for instance, as the attempt of the Chouans to assassinate the first Consul by means of the infernal machine, furnished him with a pretext for the banishment of 130 republicans. The tribunate was divided into three sections, an amnesty proclaimed, which enabled most of the emigrants (more than 100,000) to return, and the Roman Catholic worship re-established by virtue of a concordat with Pope Pius VII. An improvement was effected in the education of the higher classes, which was placed under the control of the government, a new statute-book published, called the "Code Napoleon," public credit re-established by means of a sound financial system, and a formidable army kept on foot. Measures were now adopted for gradually changing the consulship into an absolute monarchy. The establishment of a new order of knighthood (the legion of honor), with a fixed endowment, prepared the way for the restoration of hereditary nobility; and, immediately after the conclusion of peace at Amiens, Napoleon was elected *Consul for life*, by the voices of three and a half millions of the peeple, and a new constitution (the fifth) proclaimed, by which absolute authority was given to the consul, in conjunction with a senate, of which all the members were his creatures. At the same time the legislative corps and tribunate were reduced to insignificance, their duties being restricted to the settlement, without debate, of questions of civil law and taxation. A conspiracy set on foot by Pichegru and Georges (who landed from English ships and proceeded to Paris by unfrequented roads), for the purpose of assassinating the first Consul, furnished an excuse for still more daring encroachments on the liberties of the French people. The conspirators, whose arrest was effected with difficulty, in consequence of the vagueness of the information furnished to the government, were brought before the tribunal of the Seine, the trial by jury being suspended in all cases of attempts on the life of the first Consul. Pichegru died in

prison, probably by his own hand; Georges was executed, with eleven others; and the sentence on Moreau, who had been condemned to two years' imprisonment, was commuted to banishment to America. At the same time the Duke d'Enghien (the last Bourbon Prince of the line of Condé) who had been arrested on a charge of holding treasonable communication with some English agents at Ettenheim, in the territory of Baden, was condemned without proof, and shot at Vincennes. Previously to these trials, the tribunate (with the exception of Carnot) and the senate had conferred the title of hereditary Emperor of the French on Napoleon Bonaparte, who was anointed by the Pope Dec. 2, 1804, and placed the imperial crown on his own head and that of his consort. The constitution was so modified as scarcely to deserve the name of a limited monarchy, although a shadow of the representative system was retained in the legislative corps and the tribunate, which was divided as before into three sections.

## III. The Empire (1804—1814 and 1815).

### § 51. *The third Coalition against France.*

(329.) Mutual complaints of the non-fulfilment of the conditions of the peace of Amiens (especially as regarded the surrender of Malta to the Knights of St. John) produced a rupture between France and England, in the year 1803. The British government having declared war, Bonaparte immediately took possession of Hanover, prohibited the importation of British manufactures and colonial produce into France (commencement of the *continental system*), and made preparations at Boulogne for the invasion of England.

(330.) To meet this danger, Pitt proposed the formation of a fresh coalition, the operations of which were facilitated by the ambitious policy adopted by Napoleon himself; who established an hereditary kingdom of Italy, in place of the Italian republic, and placed on his own head the iron crown of Lombardy, at Milan, in the year 1805. At the same time his step-son, *Eugene Beauharnais*, was nominated *Viceroy of Italy*, and his brother-

in-law, Bacciochi, Duke of Lucca. The separate governments of Parma and Piacenza were suppressed, and the Ligurian republic incorporated with France. On the formation of this third coalition (to which England, Russia, and, at a later period, Austria, were parties) Bonaparte broke up his camp at Boulogne, and proceeded by forced marches to the Rhine, where he was joined by the Electors of Bavaria, Baden, and Würtemberg.

(331.) 1. The War in Germany (1805).—In Austria (where the measures adopted by the Archduke Charles for remodelling the army were still incomplete, and the plan of the Archduke John for raising an enormous militia force was unfavorably received by the nation) two armies were raised, the larger of which (120,000 men) marched into Italy, under the command of the Archduke Charles, to await the arrival of Napoleon, whilst the smaller (80,000 men), under the incapable Mack, proceeded through Bavaria, towards the Black Forest. Having dispatched Massena into Italy, Napoleon himself took the command in Germany, and concentrated his forces on the Upper Danube, where he was joined by Bernadotte, who had marched from Hanover through the margravate of Anspach, notwithstanding the neutrality of Prussia. After a succession of skirmishes, the French entered Bavaria, blockaded Mack in Ulm, and compelled him to surrender that fortress, with its garrison of 30,000 men. Napoleon now entered Austria almost without opposition, and Murat took possession of Vienna, whilst the scattered remnants of the Austrian army were endeavoring to effect a junction with the Russians. On Dec. 2, 1805 (the anniversary of his coronation), Napoleon defeated the united forces of the Austrians and Russians, in the so-called battle of the three Emperors, at Austerlitz; and soon afterwards peace was concluded at Presburg, the Emperor giving up the Venetian territory (which had been awarded to him at the peace of Campo Formio) to the kingdom of Italy, the Tyrol to Bavaria, and his possessions in Swabia to the Electors of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, all of whom were declared independent sovereigns, the two first with the title of King. Prussia, which had joined the coalition conditionally, and threatened France with a de-

claration of war, was required to surrender Anspach, Cleves, and Neufchatel, in exchange for Hanover. The King of Naples, who had permitted a Russian and English army to land during the war, was deprived of all his dominions (except Sicily), which were conferred, together with the title of King, on Napoleon's elder brother Joseph. The papal seignories of Benevento and Ponte-Corvo, were granted, as principalities, to Talleyrand and Bernadotte. The Batavian republic was named the kingdom of Holland, and given to the Emperor's brother Louis, the duchies of Cleves and Berg to his brother-in-law Joachim Murat, and the principality of Neufchatel to Marshal Berthier. On July 12, 1806, the German empire was dismembered, sixteen princes in the south and west of Germany (Bavaria, Würtemberg, the electoral arch-chancellor of Mainz, who resided at Ratisbon, the elector of Baden, the Landgrave of Hesse-Darmstadt, the Duke of Cleves-Berg, the Princes of Nassau, &c.) separating themselves from the empire, and forming the Rhenish confederacy, of which Napoleon declared himself the protector. Each of these princes renounced the title which indicated his connection with the empire, the arch-chancellor being thenceforth styled the Prince Primate, the Elector of Baden, Grand Duke, &c. The business of the confederacy was to be transacted at a meeting to be held at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, under the presidency of the Prince Primate. Each of the confederates pledged himself, in the event of a continental war, to assist France with a contingent proportionate to the extent of his dominions. *Francis II.*, who had assumed, in the year 1804, the title of *Francis I.*, hereditary *Emperor of Austria*, having now ceased to be head of the German empire, the imperial chambers at Wetzlow and Vienna, as well as the imperial diet at Ratisbon, were dissolved. A number of hitherto unmediatized states were declared mediatized, and subjected, by the aid of French troops, to the sovereignty of members of the confederacy, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the people (the bookseller Palm shot).

(332.) 2. The maritime War with England.—The combined Spanish and French fleets were enticed out

of the harbor of Cadiz, and utterly destroyed off Cape Trafalgar, by Lord Nelson, who lost his life in the engagement. Napoleon now gave up all thoughts of an invasion of England, and directed his attention to the annihilation of her commerce, by closing the ports of the continent.

§ 52. *The fourth Coalition against France* (1806–7).

(333.) Prussia, which had at first refused to ratify the convention signed by her ambassador Haugwitz, at Schönbrunn, was now compelled not only to take possession of Hanover, but to close the mouths of all her rivers against the English. The immediate result of this proceeding was a declaration of war on the part of England, and the blockade of all the Prussian ports in the North and Baltic seas. In the hope of still further widening the breach, Napoleon entered into negotiations for a peace with England, and promised to guarantee the restoration of Hanover. The Prussian generals were now unanimous in recommending the immediate commencement of hostilities against France; but the delay occasioned by the vacillating policy of the King enabled Napoleon to concentrate on the Main an army of 200,000 men, which marched through the valley of the Saal, and (after a skirmish near Saalfield, in which Prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia fell) engaged the two grand divisions of the Prussian army (165,000 Prussians and 20,000 Saxons), at Jena and Anerstädt, on Oct. 14. The Prince of Hohenlohe was defeated by Napoleon at Jena, and Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick by Marshal Davoust, at Anerstädt. The Duke, a veteran of seventy-two, was mortally wounded in the battle, and died soon afterwards at Ottensen. The Elector of Saxony obtained peace, and the title of King, in return for his own adherence, and that of the Saxon Dukes, to the Rhenish confederacy. All the most important Prussian fortresses (with the exception of Colberg, which was bravely defended by Gneisenau, Schill, and Nettelbeck, and some strong places in Upper Silesia), were surrendered to the French after a very feeble resistance. On Oct. 27, Napoleon entered Berlin in triumph, divided the conquered

Prussian provinces, as far as the Oder, into four departments, and published his famous *Berlin decree*, by which all commercial intercourse with England was prohibited, and the British ports declared to be in a state of blockade.

(334.) As the French troops approached the Vistula, they were joined by the Poles, who looked to Napoleon for the restoration of their independence; whilst, on the other hand, the remains of the Prussian army joined the Russians, who were now, through French influence, involved in a war with Turkey. After several obstinate and sanguinary, but indecisive engagements (at Pultusk, Golymin, &c,), the two armies went into winter quarters, with the exception of the left wing of the French army, under Ney, which marched from the Lower Vistula against Königsberg. On learning the intention of the Russian General Benningsen to attack this division, relieve Graudenz and Dantzic, and open a communication with Colberg, Napoleon broke up his winter encampment at Warsaw, and engaged Benningsen at Eglau (Feb. 7 and 8). The battle, though protracted and sanguinary, was by no means decisive, for both parties abandoned the field, and retired again into winter quarters. After an armistice of four months, during which Dantzic and Schweidnitz capitulated, and Napoleon received reinforcements from Poland, the Rhenish confederacy, and even from Spain, the war was terminated by a decisive victory gained by the French at Friedland (June 14), and Napoleon, after a personal interview with Alexander, on the Niemen, concluded a peace at Tilsit, with Russia on July 7, and Prussia on the 9th. "Out of especial regard for the Emperor of Russia," Napoleon consented to restore to *Prussia* all her provinces on the right bank of the Elbe, on condition of her giving up—1. All the territory formerly belonging to the kingdom of Poland, to the King of Saxony, under the name of the *Duchy* of *Warsaw* (Dantzic with its territory was declared a free state under the protection of Prussia and Saxony). 2. All the territory between the Elbe and the Rhine, which, with the addition of Brunswick, Hesse-Cassel, and a part of Hanover, formed the kingdom of *Westphalia* for Jerome Bonaparte, the Emperor's young-

est brother. 3. All Prussian ports were to be closed against the English. The restoration of the Prussian territory was not carried into effect until the year 1808, after payment of a contribution of 140 millions of francs. The Rhenish confederacy was now extended to Mecklenburg, and comprehended the whole of the ancient German empire, with the exception of Prussia (including the marck of Brandenburg, Pomerania, and Silesia) and Holstein. *Russia* evacuated Moldavia and Wallachia, and concluded an armistice with the Porte. *Sweden*, as a member of the fourth coalition, was obliged to surrender to France the island of Rügen and Stralsund, the last of her possessions in Germany. At the peace of Tilsit, the two Emperors had agreed that Denmark, Sweden, and Portugal, should be invited to co-operate in their measures against England; taking, therefore, for granted, that France would obtain possession of the *Danish* fleet, the British government resolved to anticipate such a proceeding, by demanding that it should be delivered up to them as a pledge of neutrality, and, on the refusal of the Danes, bombarded Copenhagen (2d—5th September), and carried off the whole fleet. In consequence of this violent proceeding, Russia declared war against England, and Denmark concluded an alliance with France, and obtained from that country an army for the defence of her territory.

## § 53. *The War in Portugal and Spain* (1808—1814).

(335.) Portugal, in consequence of her refusal to close her ports against the English, was occupied by a French army under Junot, who assumed the title of Duke of Abrantes, and proclaimed himself regent in the name of the French Emperor, after the departure of the Portuguese royal family for Brazil. In pursuance of his favorite object, the destruction of English commerce, Napoleon not only extended his continental system to Portugal and Italy (as far as the latter country was dependent on France), but even formed a plan for the subjugation of Spain; and under pretence of protecting that country against an English invasion, crossed the Pyrenees at the head of 100,000 men. Charles IV., who a short time be-

fore (in consequence of an insurrection against his contemptible favorite, Godoy, Prince of the Peace) had resigned his crown in favor of his son, Ferdinand VII., no sooner witnessed the entry of the French into Madrid, than he desired to recall his abdication. Under pretence of settling the dispute, Napoleon invited the whole party to meet him at Bayonne, and having made himself master of their persons, compelled the Bourbon family to resign the Spanish crown, and placed his brother Joseph on the throne. The vacant kingdom of Naples was then conferred on Murat, and the grand-duchy of Berg destined for the Crown Prince of Holland. Against the sovereign thus treacherously imposed on them, the whole Spanish nation rose as one man; and Joseph, after an unsuccessful attempt to conciliate his new subjects by granting them a liberal constitution, was compelled to quit Madrid and retire to Burgos.

(336.) An English army, commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, landed in Portugal, and drove the French out of that country; the means of returning to France being secured to Junot and his army by the Convention of Cintra. At the same time, another French army, under Dupont, was surrounded and captured in the south of Spain. The French had already fallen back on the Ebra, when Napoleon (to whom the Emperor Alexander, in a personal interview at Erfurt, had promised assistance in the event of a war with Austria) appeared in Spain at the head of 335,000 men.

(337.) After a victorious progress from the Ebro, the French Emperor entered Madrid, and immediately abolished the inquisition, the feudal system, and the Council of Castile (which had recalled its consent to the abdication of Charles IV.), and reduced the number of convents to one-third. Having, in conjunction with Soult, compelled the English to evacuate Portugal, Napoleon returned to France to make preparations for a fresh war with Austria. On the 21st February, 1809, the fortress of Saragossa (which had been twice heroically defended by the Spanish General Palafox, with the loss of 53,000 men) surrendered to the French; and the cause of Spanish independence seemed utterly ruined; for the brilliant vic-

tory of Talavera (27th and 28th of July), obtained by Sir Arthur Wellesley[1] over King Joseph, was neutralized by the defeat of an army recently raised by the Junta of Seville, which was almost annihilated by Soult, at Ocano.

(338.) The monks, to whose influence King Joseph attributed the general insurrection of the Spanish nation against the French, were punished by the suppression of all the monastic orders. Whilst the French, although perpetually harassed by swarms of irregular troops, called Guerillas, were still advancing steadily towards the south, the Junta had retired to Seville, and assembled the Cortes (1810), which drew up (and proclaimed in 1812) a new constitution, by which the monarchical power was greatly restricted. The repeated attempts of the French (especially under Massena) to regain a footing in Portugal, were as unsuccessful as their attacks on Cadiz, which was strongly fortified and protected by a combined Spanish and English fleet. In the year 1812, the French force in Spain having been reduced to 168,000 men, by the withdrawal of a large number of the best soldiers and generals for the Russian campaign, the whole population of several provinces were encouraged to take the field, and the Guerillas (under Mina, the Curate Merino, Mendizabal, &c.) became daily more numerous and daring. The fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajóz were stormed by Lord Wellington, who separated the armies of Marmont and Soult, defeated the former near Salamanca, compelled Joseph to quit Madrid, and then, on the approach of the French, retreated to the Portuguese frontier. Soult having been recalled from Spain by Napoleon, after his disastrous campaign in Russia, the English general compelled King Joseph a second time to abandon his capital, and retire to the Ebro, and in the year 1813 decided the fate of Spain, by a brilliant victory over Jourdan at Vittoria. Joseph escaped being taken prisoner, by a precipitate flight into France. Soult, who had reentered Spain by command of Napoleon, was compelled to recross the Pyrenees by Lord Wellington, and the war was

[1] Immediately after this battle, Sir Arthur Wellesley was created Lord Wellington.

terminated by the battle of Thoulouse, in April, 1814, the Emperor Napoleon having previously abdicated, and Ferdinand VII. being released from his imprisonment at Valençay.

### § 54. *Suppression of the temporal authority of the Pope* (1809).

(339.) Soon after his coronation, Napoleon had conceived the idea of depriving the Pope of his temporal power, and transporting him to Paris, where the influence of the Sovereign Pontiff might be advantageously employed for the promotion of his own ambitious designs. After a succession of annoyances and threats, Napoleon demanded that the Pope should accede to the continental system, close his ports against the English, and conclude an alliance, offensive and defensive, with France, at least against the Infidels, by which title he designated the Turks and all the Protestant powers. On the refusal of the Pope to entertain this proposal, the Emperor took possession of Rome, and annexed to the kingdom of Italy four provinces belonging to the States of the Church. These measures were speedily followed by the publication of a decree (dated from Schönbrunn), in which *the temporal authority of the Pope was declared to be at an end;* and in the following year (1810) the rest of the States of the Church were incorporated into the French empire. Pius VII., who had excommunicated the originators and perpetrators of these acts of violence, was carried off by force to Grenoble, and thence removed to Savona, where he remained three years a prisoner, refusing with exemplary firmness to resign his temporal authority, and establish his residence at Paris. In the summer of 1812, he was removed to Fontainebleau, for the purpose of negotiating a fresh concordat, and returned to Rome after the abdication of Napoleon, in 1814.

### § 55. *War of Austria against Napoleon* (1809).

(340.) After the peace of Tilsit, an attempt was made by the Austrian government to re-establish its political

influence in Europe. With this view the army was reorganized; and when Napoleon, in consequence of this movement, called on the members of the Rhenish Confederacy to hold themselves in readiness, the Austrians resolved to anticipate his attack. A proclamation was accordingly issued by the Emperor's brothers, the Archdukes Charles and John, as commanders-in-chief of the army destined to act in Bavaria and Italy, calling on the German nation to co-operate with Austria in her struggles for the liberty of their common fatherland; but scarcely any effect was produced by this appeal. The army commanded by the Archduke Charles, which had entered Bavaria, was defeated in a series of engagements, which lasted from the 19th to the 23d of April (at Abensberg, Landshut, Eckmühl, and Ratisbon), by a force composed almost entirely of Germans, and compelled, after sustaining immense loss, to cross the Danube, and retreat towards Bohemia.

(341.) On the 13th of May, Vienna was a second time taken by the French; Napoleon, who had advanced by forced marches for the purpose of preventing the relief of Vienna by the Archduke Charles, *was defeated for the first time* (21st and 22d of May), near the villages of Aspern and Esling. He then formed a junction with the Italian army under Eugene Beauharnais, a second time crossed the Danube, and defeated the Archduke Charles in the sanguinary battle of Wagram (5th and 6th of July). The two armies met again at Znaim, in Moravia, and victory had already begun to incline to the side of the French, when hostilities were suspended by the arrival of Prince Lichtenstein, who was empowered by the Emperor to arrange the terms of an armistice. After this battle, and an unsuccessful attempt of the English to effect a diversion, by landing on the island of Walcheren, in Holland, the Austrian war was terminated on the 14th October by the peace of Vienna. By this treaty Austria lost 2000 square miles of territory, with three and a half millions of inhabitants; Salzburg and several neighboring districts being ceded to Bavaria, western Galicia to the duchy of Warsaw, a district of eastern Galicia to Russia, and her possessions along the Sau to Napoleon, as King of Italy. Out of this last-mention-

ed province, with Dalmatia, Istria, and Ragusa (which were separated from Italy), and the Greek islands (ceded by Russia in 1807), Napoleon formed the new state of the *seven Illyrian provinces* (Carinthia, Carniola, Istria, Dalmatia, Ragusa, Civil and Military Croatia), of which Marmont was appointed governor. A short time before the breaking out of this war, the Tyrolese, irritated beyond endurance by the extortion and oppression of the Bavarian government, had revolted to their ancient masters the Austrians, and under the command of an innkeeper named *Andrew Hofer* (and Speckbacher), had thrice cleared their country of the French and Bavarian troops (in April, May, and August). But after the conclusion of peace at Vienna, an overwhelming force was sent into the Tyrol: and Hofer, who had taken refuge in an Alpine hut near Passeger, was betrayed by one of his countrymen, conveyed a prisoner to Mantua, and shot by sentence of a court-martial. The Tyrol was now divided into three portions, of which one was assigned to Bavaria, another (the southern) annexed to the kingdom of Italy, and a third (the eastern) incoporated with Illyria. As an indemnification for this sacrifice of territory, Bavaria received Baireuth and Ratisbon; the prince primate (Charles of Dalberg) of Ratisbon, being created Grand Duke of Frankfort (a sovereignty formed for that purpose out of Frankfort, Fulda, Hanau, Wetzlau, and Aschaffenburg), with a stipulation that his successor should be Eugene Beauharnais, the viceroy of Italy. Several attempts were made by individuals to arouse the dormant patriotism of the German nation, but without success. A Prussian major, named *Schill*, commander of a volunteer corps raised by him in 1806, marched a hussar regiment of 600 men out of Berlin, under pretence of exercising them, and proceeded to Stralsund, where he was slain with most of his soldiers. Eleven officers were taken prisoners and shot by the French.

§ 56. *Napoleon at the summit of his power* (1810—1812).

342. In the hope of obtaining an heir to his throne, and of imparting, in some sort, a legitimate character to his dy-

nasty, Napoleon repudiated Josephine, and married (2d of April, 1810) Maria Louisa, daughter of the Emperor Francis of Austria. On the 20th of March, 1811, the new Empress was delivered of a son, who was immediately created King of Rome. His brother Louis having declared his readiness to abdicate in favor of his son, rather than ruin Holland by enforcing a rigid observance to the continental system, Napoleon *annexed the whole of that country to France.* Under the same pretext, and in the face of his own repeated declarations, that he wished the Rhine to be the boundary of his dominions, the Emperor incorporated into the French empire the maritime provinces of northern Germany, a great part of the kingdom of Westphalia, the Hanse Towns, the grand duchy of Berg, Oldenburg, and East Fricsland: as he had already annexed Tuscany, the States of the Church, and the Canton of Vallais (department of the Simplon), in Switzerland. The empire at this time numbered 130 departments, and extended along the coast of western and southern Europe, from the mouth of the Elbe to Trieste and Corfu. The imperial government now became every day more absolute: the sittings of the legislative body, which had long since been a mere farce, were suspended: the duties of the senate were confined to the appearance of its members on great occasions in the suite of the Emperor, and the passing of acts confirmatory of his decrees for the annexation of fresh territory. All public functionaries were entirely dependent on the crown: a system of espionage was established in every part of the empire, and arrests on the most frivolous pretexts occurred daily: liberty of the press was annihilated by the censorship and other restrictions, the population of half France remained uneducated, notwithstanding the increase in the number of schools, and even the arts were cultivated solely for the purpose of imparting additional lustre to the military glories of the empire. Meanwhile the continental system was ruining commerce, in spite of the encouragement afforded to manufacturing industry, by the establishment of prizes and institutions, and the formation of roads and canals, and Napoleon at last found himself obliged to grant licenses for the importation, in certain cases, of

English goods. These grievances, in conjunction with the unceasing conscription, were rapidly producing discontent and bitterness, in the place of those feelings of devoted affection with which the government of Napoleon was at first regarded by the people, as well as the cabinets of many European nations.

### § 57. *Napoleon's Russian Campaign* (1812).

(343.) The conviction that the continental system would be ruinous to her commerce, and that Napoleon would never rest until he had destroyed her influence as a first-rate European power, was soon forced on Russia, which had wrested Finland from Sweden in 1808, and extended her dominions to the Pruth, by the peace of Bucharest, concluded in 1812, after a six years' war with the Turks. The first coolness between Alexander and Napoleon was occasioned by the annexation of Galicia to the duchy of Warsaw, a measure which was regarded with suspicion by the Russian Emperor, as tending towards the re-establishment of Poland as a kingdom. Other causes of offence followed in rapid succession; on the one side Napoleon, who had already annoyed the Emperor by depriving the Duke of Oldenburgh (husband of Alexander's aunt by the mother's side) of his dominions, now demanded the rigid enforcement of the continental system by Russia; whilst, on the other, the union of Warsaw (as a province) with Saxony, and the evacuation of the Prussian dominions, were strongly urged on France by the Russian government. The refusal of each party to accede to the demands of the other at length produced a war, which was commenced in 1812 by Napoleon, who collected an army of 400,000, or, according to some writers, of 600,000 men, from almost every country in south-western Europe. To oppose this formidable armament, the Russians assembled 372,000 men. With his accustomed rapidity of movement, Napoleon crossed the Niemen into Lithuania, and advanced by forced marches to Smolensk, with scarcely any opposition on the part of the Russians, who were unwilling to hazard a general engagement until they had formed a junction with the troops from the interior. Af-

ter defeating the Russians at Smolensk, and again at Borodino, on the Moskwa, Napoleon (on the 14th of September) entered Moscow, which was entirely abandoned by the inhabitants; and soon after his arrival a fire broke out (occasioned probably by the Russian governor Rostopchin), which raged six days, and destroyed nine-tenths of the city. Notwithstanding this calamity, Napoleon lingered five weeks among the ruins of Moscow, endeavoring to negotiate a peace; but discovering his error when it was too late, he broke up his quarters on the 18th of October, and commenced his retreat with an army now reduced to 104,000 men. The winter had already set in with a severity almost unprecedented at that early season, the thermometer (Reaumur's) steadily indicating 18—20 degrees of cold;* and the whole of the country between Moscow and Beresina, an extent of 150 (German) miles, presented the appearance of a desert, the inhabitants of the villages having removed or destroyed all their agricultural produce. At length the army, reduced by famine and the unceasing attacks of the Russians and Cossacks to 30,000 men capable of bearing arms, reached the Beresina, where the passage of the river was forced by Ney and Oudinot, with 8500 men, in the face of 25,000 Russians. The retreat now became a flight, in consequence of the intensity of the cold (26—27 degrees),† and the abandonment of his army by Napoleon, who had placed himself in a sledge, when all was lost, and proceeded to Paris (arrived 18th December), where his presence was rendered necessary by the unsettled state of public affairs (attempt of Mallet to re-establish the republic). General Ney, who had distinguished himself in the battle of the Moskwa, and done good service by the masterly manner in which he had conducted the retreat, was created Prince of the Moskwa. The first step towards the emancipation of Prussia, was the conclusion of a convention of neutrality between the Prussian general Diebitsch and General York, who was sent to cover the retreat of the left wing of the French army under Macdonald. This proceeding on the part of

* Equal to 8½—13½° below zero of Fahrenheit.—S.
† " " 26½—29° below zero of Fahrenheit.—S.

the Prussian general was stigmatized by Napoleon as an act of the grossest treachery, and the chief cause of his subsequent misfortunes.

## § 58. *The War of Liberation* (1813—1814).

(344.) Frederick William III. of Prussia, after issuing from Breslau a manifesto, in which he called on his people to rise and defend their liberties against the encroachments of the French, now concluded an alliance with Russia for the re-establishment of the Prussian monarchy, and having been subsequently joined by Sweden and England, commenced his preparations for the formation of a national militia in Prussia.

### *Campaign in the Spring of* 1813.

(345.) In the month of March, the Prussian grand army under Blücher, marched through Silesia to Dresden, where it awaited the arrival of a Russian force commanded by Kalish. A second Russo-Prussian army was also sent from Berlin to join the two other corps. The allied army, under Wittgenstein, now numbered 85,000 men, and that of the French 120,000, most of whom were raw conscripts.

(346.) Towards the end of April, Napoleon re-appeared in Germany and advanced to Leipzic, where he was compelled to engage the enemy at Grossgörschen, or, as he himself named the battle, at Lützen, on the 2d of May: but notwithstanding the disadvantage under which they labored, in being unprepared for the attack, and the heavy loss which they sustained in the battle, the French were victorious: and the allies retreated by way of Dresden into Lusatia. Sharnhorst died at Prague of the wounds which he had received in the battle. Soon afterwards Napoleon appeared at Dresden, and compelled the wavering King of Saxony to place the resources of his kingdom at the disposal of the French. On the 20th of May Napoleon attacked the allies at Bautzen, forced the passage of the Spree, and completed his victory on the following day, at Wurschen, where he sustained a consi-

derable loss in killed and wounded. As the allies directed their retreat towards Silesia instead of Berlin, in order to effect a junction with the Austrians, the conqueror, who wished to prevent a meeting of the three powers, as well as to gain time for fresh levies, consented to an armistice (4th of June to 10th of August), in the hope that Austria would eventually join the French. A short time previously to these events, the city of Hamburgh, which had been abandoned by the French officials on the approach of a Russian army, under Tetterborn, was retaken by Davoust, and mercilessly pillaged, because the inhabitants were unable to pay a forced contribution of 48 millions of francs.

*Resumption of the War after the Armistice.*

(347.) The congress of Prague having terminated unsatisfactorily, in consequence of the unreasonable demands of Austria, and the unwillingness of England to become a party to a treaty of peace, war was declared by the Austrian government against Napoleon, whose subsequent overtures were treated with contempt. The allies had made the best use of the breathing time allowed them by the armistice. A subsidy of eleven millions, granted by England, enabled them to equip at least 600,000 men, who formed three divisions, viz., 1. The grand army of Bohemia, under Schwarzenberg, in whose camp were the three allied monarchs and General Moreau. 2. The army of Silesia, under Blücher. 3. The army of the North, under the Crown Prince of Sweden, Charles John Bernadotte. Against this enormous force Napoloon brought into the field about 350,000 men; and notwithstanding his inferiority in point of numbers, commenced hostilities with an attack on the army of Silesia, which retreated beyond the Katzbach. Meanwhile, however, Schwarzenberg had marched upon Dresden, and Napoleon was compelled to proceed by forced marches to that city (leaving General Macdonald in Silesia). On the 26th and 27th of August, Napoleon gained his last victory (at Dresden), on German ground, amidst torrents of rain. Moreau was mortally wounded in this battle, and died soon afterwards. This

advantage gained by Napoleon, was however almost neutralized, by the failure of the other divisions of the French army. 1. Oudinot, who should have marched on Berlin, and effected a junction with Davoust, was defeated by Blücher at Grossbeeren, on the 23rd of August. 2. Macdonald was compelled by Blücher to re-cross the Katzbach, near the village of Wahlstatt, on the 26th of August. In consequence of this victory, Blücher obtained the name of Marshal "Forwards," and was created Prince of Wahlstatt. 3. Vandamme (who had received orders to cut off the retreat of the army of Bohemia), being unsupported by Napoleon, was defeated and taken prisoner, with 10,000 men, by the Russian guard under Ostermann, supported by an unexpected reinforcement of Prussians under Kleist (30th of August), at Kulm, near Töblitz. 4. Ney, who after the defeat of Oudinot had been dispatched against the army of the north, with orders to take possession of Berlin, was himself defeated at Dennewitz, on the 6th of Sept., by Bülow and Tauenzien. The Silesian and northern armies having crossed the Elbe (where Bertrand was defeated by York, near Wartenberg,) in order to effect, if possible, a junction with the army of Bohemia in Napoleon's rear, the French Emperor quitted Dresden, and drew together all his forces at Leipzic, where the great "*battle of the nations*" was fought on the 16th, 17th, and 18th October. Towards the end of this battle, the Saxons and Würtembergers went over to the allies. On the first day Napoleon engaged the main body of the allies, under Schwarzenberg, on the plain southwards of Leipzic, near Wachau, but without any decisive result; whilst at the same time Blücher defeated Marmont, on the northern side of the city, near Möckern. On the 17th there was no general engagement, Napoleon having communicated to the Emperor of Austria his willingness to purchase peace, by the relinquishment of his sovereignty over Warsaw, Illyria, and the Rhineland, and to withdraw his troops to the other side of the Rhine, as soon as an armistice was concluded. Meanwhile, however, a reinforcement of more than 100,000 men had joined the allied army, which now numbered 300,000, whilst the French had scarcely 130,000. Under these circumstances

the battle was renewed on the 18th October. After losing more than 30,000 men (including Prince Poniatowsky, a nephew of the last King of Poland, who was drowned in the Elster), the defeated army, which still numbered 100,000 men, commenced its retreat, and fought its way to the Rhine, where 70,000 men crossed the river at Mainz. During this retreat, the French were attacked on the Unstrut by York, and at Hanau by the Bavarians, under Wrede, and were incessantly harassed by bands of Cossacks. The immediate consequences of this victory were—1. The breaking up of the Rhenish confederacy. 2. The dissolution of the kingdom of Westphalia and the grand duchies of Frankfort and Berg. 3. The surrender of all the French garrisons as prisoners of war, with the exception of the garrison of Hamburg, which held out, under Davoust, until the 26th of May, 1814. 4. The re-conquest, by Bülow, of Holland, where the people, who had been more forward than any other nation in their resistance to the continental system, proclaimed the Prince of Orange sovereign of the Netherlands. 5. Denmark, on account of its alliance with Napoleon, was invaded by the Crown Prince of Sweden, and compelled, after a short winter campaign, to cede Norway to Sweden in exchange for Swedish Pomerania and Rügen. 6. Illyria and the Tyrol were restored to Austria, after a long and bloody struggle. In the south, Murat, King of Naples, the Emperor's brother-in-law, formed an alliance with the Austrians for the expulsion of the French from Italy, the Emperor of Austria undertaking to guarantee to him the undisturbed possession of his dominions. On the other hand, Switzerland, too feeble as yet to throw off the French yoke, concluded a treaty of neutrality with Napoleon, who deemed this the best mode of protecting his weakest frontier.

*Invasion of France by the Allies* (1814).

(348.) Wellington, being now prepared to enter France from Spain, and the allied army from the Rhine, Napoleon, who had rejected the offers of peace made to him by the allies, demanded a fresh conscription of 300,000 men, and prorogued the legislative assembly, which had ven-

tured to present him an address describing, in strong language, the misery and exhaustion of France. At the commencement of the year 1814 the allies entered France, the grand army under Schwarzenberg traversing a portion of neutral Switzerland, and crossing the frontier at Basle, whilst the force under the command of Blücher crossed the Rhine, on new year's eve, at Mannheim, Caub, and Coblenz. In the hope of preventing a junction, Napoleon attacked Blücher near Brienne, and forced him to retreat; but, in spite of this check, the united armies attacked the French at la Rothière, and drove them across the Aube. The two corps then separated, the grand army under Schwarzenberg proceeding along the banks of the Seine, and the army of Silesia along the Maine, in the direction of Paris. No sooner was Napoleon aware of this separation, than he several times (10th—14th of February) attacked the army of Silesia, and compelled it to retire northwards, and then (18th of February) defeated the grand army at Montereau. A congress was now held at Chatillon, but without any result except the temporary suspension of hostilities. In order to prevent Napoleon from following the grand army, Blücher continued his march on Paris, and defeated the French near Laon. Then Napoleon attacked the grand army at Arcis-sur-Aube, and being compelled to retire before a superior force, conceived the desperate design of leaving the road to Paris open, attacking the enemy in the rear (from Lorraine), and drawing together all the garrisons of the eastern fortresses for a final struggle. With equal courage the allies continued their march towards the capital, and after defeating Marshals Marmont and Mortier, at la Fère Champenoise, and storming the heights of Montmartre, entered Paris (in consequence of a capitulation) on the 31st of March, with the Emperor Alexander, King Frederick William, and Prince Schwarzenberg, at their head. No sooner had the capital fallen, than the senate was persuaded by Talleyrand to declare *the throne forfeited by Napoleon and his family*, and the nation absolved from its oath of allegiance.

(349.) Napoleon, who had reached Paris a few hours too late, signed his abdication on the 11th of April, at

Fontainebleau, renouncing for himself and heirs all claims to the throne of France, Italy, or any other country; the allies, on their side, engaging to confer on him the sovereignty of the island of Elba, with a pension of two millions of francs, to grant to his wife the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla, with succession to her son and his descendants, and to provide for his relations.

(350.) On the very day of Napoleon's landing at Elba (14th of May), Louis XVIII. entered Paris, replaced the constitution hastily drawn up by the provisional government by another formed on the English model, with two chambers, one of peers and one of deputies, and concluded with the allies (30th of May) the peace of Paris, by which it was settled that the boundaries of France should be the same as they were before the Revolution, with the exception of some unimportant extensions towards the east and north-east.

(351.) For the definitive settlement of European affairs, especially as regarded Germany, a Congress was held at Vienna (1st of November, 1814—9th of June, 1815), which was attended by the Emperors of Russia and Austria, the Kings of Prussia, Denmark, and Würtemberg, and several other princes, statesmen, and generals. After protracted negotiations, which were only brought to a conclusion by the intelligence of Napoleon's escape from Elba, it was resolved:—1. That *Austria* should have the Illyrian provinces, and (in addition to Milan, which had belonged to her before the Revolution) should be indemnified for the cession of Belgium by receiving Venice, Salzburg, and the Tyrol. 2. To *Russia* was assigned the greater part of the duchy of Warsaw, under the name of The Kingdom of Poland—Cracow was declared an independent state. 3. *Prussia* obtained a portion of the duchy of Warsaw (had the grand duchy of Posen), with Dantzic, Swedish Pomerania, and Rügen (in exchange for Lauenburg), the restoration of her ancient possessions in Westphalia and Neufchatel, and as an indemnification for the provinces which she had lost, the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine and a part of Saxony. 4. *England* had Malta, Heligoland, a portion of the colonies which she had conquered in the war, Hanover

(with the addition of East Friesland) as a German kingdom, and the protectorate of the republic of the Ionian isles. 5. *Holland* was re-united to Belgium, the Stattholder of Holland being created King of this "*kingdom of the Netherlands*," with the title of William I. 6. *A Germanic confederation* was substituted for the German empire, the position of the different members remaining in all essential particulars the same as in 1806, when the empire was dissolved, and the Rhenish confederacy established. The number of states was limited to thirty-eight, each of which was required to send representatives to a federal diet, which held a permanent session at Frankfort-on-the-Main, for the settlement of all questions affecting the general interests of the Confederation. With this exception, each state was declared to be sovereign and independent. Weimar, Oldenburg, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, became grand duchies: Frankfort-on-the-Main, Lübeck, Hamburg, and Bremen remained independent cities. To the German confederacy belonged also two foreign sovereigns, viz., the King of the Netherlands (as Grand Duke of Luxemburg) and the King of Denmark (as Duke of Holstein and Lauenburg). 7. *Denmark* received Lauenburg as an indemnification for the cession of Norway to Sweden. An attempt on the part of the Norwegians to establish an independent kingdom, under a Danish prince, was resisted by all the European powers; but a separate constitution was granted to Norway, in consequence of the movement. *Switzerland*, at the conclusion of a war in which she had taken no part, obtained (in addition to the nineteen cantons assigned to her by the Act of Mediation of 1803) the Cantons of Geneva, Vallais, and Neufchatel. The Bourbon dynasty in *Spain* (and subsequently in *Naples*), as well as the *Pope*, the King of *Sardinia* and the Duke of *Modena* were reinstated in the positions which they had respectively occupied before the war, the King of Sardinia receiving, in addition, the city and territory of Genoa. *Lucca* was given to the Queen Dowager of Etruria and her son Don Carlos; *Parma*, *Piacenza*, and *Guastalla*, to Maria Louisa (consort of Napoleon), for her life, the reversion of the three duchies being secured after her death to the pos-

sessor of Lucca; the whole eventually to be annexed to Tuscany.

## § 59. *Escape of Napoleon from Elba.—The Hundred Days* (1815).

(352.) A spirit of disaffection had already begun to manifest itself in France, in consequence of the mal-administration of the government, and the insolence of those classes which had enjoyed peculiar privileges before the Revolution. Encouraged by the reports which he received of the prevalence of discontent, especially among the soldiers, and the difficulties in which the Congress of Vienna was involved by the Polish and Saxon questions, Napoleon escaped from Elba, landed with 2000 men at Cannes on the 1st of March, and being joined by all the troops sent to oppose his progress and by Marshal Ney, entered Paris on the 20th, amidst the acclamations of the people, and immediately established his head quarters at the Tuileries. Meanwhile Louis XVIII. had fled to Ghent.

(353.) Napoleon, by a proclamation dated from Lyons, had already summoned the electoral colleges of the empire to hold an extraordinary meeting (Champ de Mai) in Paris, for the improvement of the constitution; but the popularity obtained by this apparent concession to the wishes of the people, was in a great measure lost in consequence of these ameliorations being eventually decreed by the emperor himself, without the intervention of a representative body. Notwithstanding repeated attempts on the part of Napoleon to re-open negotiations with the emperors of Austria and Russia, the Congress of Vienna proclaimed him an outlawed traitor on the 13th of March, renewed their alliance for the restoration of Louis XVIII., and engaged to raise a force, which eventually amounted to 900,000 men. On the other hand, Napoleon was unable to complete the number which he had intended to bring into the field (560,000 men).

(354.) Death of Murat. The Bourbon courts having opposed the recognition of Murat's title by the congress of Vienna, a proclamation was issued by that sovereign, soon after the landing of Napoleon, calling on the

people of Italy to unite with him in a patriotic struggle for the utter extinction of foreign domination in Italy. Murat advanced as far as the Po; but being defeated by the Austrians in several engagements (especially at Tolentino), he fled to France, leaving his throne to King Ferdinand. In the following October he landed in Calabria, where he was taken prisoner, and shot by sentence of a court-martial.

### The last battle of the allies, 15—18 June, 1815.

(355.) Napoleon now determined to commence hostilities by attacking simultaneously the allied troops (English, Dutch, Belgians, Hanoverians, Brunswickers, Nassauers, &c.), which were dispersed through Belgium under the command of Wellington, and the Prussians under Blücher; and thus preventing a junction of the two armies. The Prussian army, which had not yet had time to concentrate itself, was defeated at Ligny; whilst Ney meanwhile marched northwards as far as Quatrebras, for the purpose of preventing the advance of Wellington to relieve the Prussians. Here an indecisive battle was fought, in which Duke William of Brunswick lost his life. Instead of falling back on Namur, as Napoleon had expected, the Prussians now endeavored to effect a junction with Wellington by Wavre. Having dispatched Marshal Grouchy to intercept Blücher, Napoleon attacked Wellington on the 18th of June, at Mont S. Jean, or la belle Alliance,[1] where the English, after bravely fighting throughout the day, were beginning to waver towards evening, when Blücher (who had left Thielemann to oppose Grouchy at Wavre), appeared on the field, and, in conjunction with Wellington, completely routed the French army, which fled in disorder, pursued by the Prussians. After a succession of victorious skirmishes, Blücher arrived, on the 22d of June, at Paris, where Napoleon had a second time abdicated, in favor of his son. Napoleon then fled to Rochefort, with the intention of embarking for America; but finding the harbor beset by English

[1] Better known to English readers under the name of Waterloo.—S.

cruisers, he surrendered himself to Capt. Maitland, of the Bellerophon, and was conveyed a prisoner to St. Helena, where he died, after nearly six years' suffering, on the 5th of May, 1821.

(356.) The allies, accompanied by Louis XVIII., a second time entered Paris, where they levied a contribution of 100,000,000 of francs, by way of indemnification for the expenses incurred in the war, and obtained the restoration of those treasures of art which had been stolen from their respective capitals by Napoleon. A demand was also made by Prussia for the cession of all the provinces which had formerly belonged to Germany; but this claim was set aside by Talleyrand, whose successor in the administration, Richelieu, expedited the conclusion of the peace of Paris (20th November), by which all the resolutions of the Congress of Vienna were confirmed, and the limits of the kingdom (as settled by the first peace) considerably contracted. The two fortresses of Philippeville and Marienburg on the northern frontier, with the duchy of Bouillon, were ceded by France to the Netherlands, Saarlouis to Prussia, Landau (the third German fortress in point of importance) to Bavaria, and the western part of Savoy to Sardinia. She was also required to pay 700,000,000 of francs for the expenses of the war, and maintain an army of 150,000 allied troops, under Wellington, for five years in her frontier provinces and fortresses. The Bonaparte family were banished from France, and forbidden to return thither, on pain of death. The two emperors and the King of Prussia then concluded a fraternal league, called the Holy Alliance, by which they bound themselves to support each other on all occasions, and in the administration of their respective governments, no less than in their political intercourse with foreign states, to be guided by the precepts of the Christian religion, and the rules of justice, charity, and peace, rather than by the dictates of worldly policy.

## § 60. *France.*—A. *The Restoration of the Bourbons.* (1815—1830.)

(357.) Before his return to Paris, Louis XVIII.

(1815—1824) had issued a proclamation from Cambray, granting a free pardon to all who had taken part in the Revolution, with the exception of its chief authors, and constituted a liberal administration under Talleyrand; which, however, was speedily overthrown by the court party, headed by the king's brother, the Comte d' Artois. An act was then passed by the ultra-royalist majority in the chambers, excluding from the amnesty, and condemning to perpetual banishment, all who had taken part in the murder of Louis XVI. (*régicides*).

(358.) Ney was arraigned before the chamber of peers, found guilty of high treason and shot. Louis XVIII. having been persuaded to dissolve the chambers (*chambre introuvable*), some projects of law, of a more liberal character (respecting elections, liberty of the press and person, &c.) were carried through the new chambers by the Duc de Richelieu, who also obtained at the congress of Aix la Chapelle, 1818, the withdrawal of the army of occupation, and a remission of some portion of the debt still due from France to the allies. In return for these concessions Louis XVIII. joined the holy alliance. Under the two succeeding administrations, the liberal party obtained a decided majority in the chamber of deputies, and the utter defeat of the ultra-royalists seemed inevitable, when the assassination of the Duc de Berri (second son of the Comte d'Artois) by a saddler named Louvel, furnished them with an excuse for demanding the dismissal of the premier (Décazes) who resigned in order to escape being arraigned as an accomplice. Then they altered the law of election so as to secure the ascendency of their party, and finally compelled the king to form an ultra-royalist administration, with Villéle at its head. Notwithstanding the opposition of the liberal party, and almost in defiance of the king's wishes, and the remonstrances of their president, the new ministry carried a resolution, that France should undertake the re-establishment of the absolute monarchy in Spain, as settled at the congress of Verona. (See § 68.) Emboldened by their success in this instance, the ultra-royalists now exerted themselves to obliterate every trace of the Revolution, and re-establish the privileged classes in all their former splen-

dor; a plan which they pursued with great zeal and success under

(359.) Charles X. (1824—1830). But the indignation of the people was at length excited by the pertinacity with which they endeavored to increase the influence of the priesthood, and by their granting an indemnification to the extent of 1,000,000,000 of francs to the emigrants, whose estates had been confiscated by the revolutionary government. In conjunction with these unpopular measures, the disbanding of the national guard, which had declared itself favorable to the dismissal of Villéle, and the establishment of a censorship of the press produced such an effect upon the elections, that Charles X. was compelled to dismiss his ministers. The next administration (Martignac's) sent a French army under Maison, to clear the Morea of Turkish troops; but soon afterwards was compelled to resign in consequence of the dissatisfaction occasioned by two projects of law. An ultra-royalist administration was then formed by Polignac, all the members of which were vehemently opposed to the constitution. Public discontent was now at its height. The majority of the chamber of 1830 (221 deputies) presented an address to the king, in which they declared plainly, that the policy pursued by the government was utterly at variance with the wishes of the nation. An attempt was made by the king to withdraw the attention of the people from domestic politics, by sending an expedition against the Dey of Algiers, who had insulted the French consul. At the same time the chamber was dissolved, and a new election ordered. But these measures were utterly ineffectual. The intelligence of the capture of Algiers by Bouenwall was coldly received by the people, and 207 out of the former majority of 221 opposition deputies were returned in defiance of an open warning from the king. Finding themselves again in a minority, the ministry now persuaded the king to sign the fatal Ordonnances of 25th of July, by which the liberty of the press was suspended, the recently elected chamber dissolved, the number of deputies diminished, and the mode of election altered. This open violation of the constitution produced the

(360.) Revolution of July,—27th of July—7th of

August, 1830.—Some of the royal troops having joined the revolutionists, and the remainder been driven out of the city after three days' hard fighting (27th—29th of July), Charles X. abdicated at Rambouillet on the 2nd of August, in favor of his grandson, the Duc de Bordeaux. Several unsuccessful attempts had already been made to proclaim a republic: and on the 30th of July the peers and deputies, who happened to be resident at Paris, had met and nominated as regent the Duke of Orleans (descendant of a brother of Louis XIV.), by whose representations Charles was induced to quit the kingdom, and seek an asylum in Scotland. On the 7th of August, the Duke of Orleans was proclaimed hereditary "*King of the French*," by the chambers, and on the 9th swore fidelity to the charter of 1830, in which the sovereignty of the people was fully recognized. The national guard was re-established and placed under the command of Lafayette. The following alterations were made in the charter of Louis XVIII. It was no longer recognized as a royal gift; nor was the king permitted to dispense with any of its provisions, to release others from observance of the laws, or to take foreign troops into his pay. The initiative in legislation was given to the chambers, as well as the king, and the restoration of the censorship and establishment of extraordinary tribunals, strictly prohibited.

### B. *Under the House of Orleans*, 1830—1848.

(361.) The first care of Louis Philippe was to obtain the recognition of his title by foreign powers; an object which was effected without much difficulty, as he founded his claim on his *legitimate* right to the throne (the elder branch of the Bourbons having abdicated) rather than the choice of the people. But this disavowal of the principle on which he had been chosen king of the French, however satisfactory to foreign cabinets, was exceedingly distasteful to the people, and the cause of serious disturbances. His ministers, who were repeatedly changed, were engaged in a perpetual contest with the Republicans on the one side, and the adherents of the ancient dynasty (Legitimists or Carlists) on the other; and in the chamber of

deputies a formidable opposition, specially organized for resistance to the "*juste milieu*" system[1] of Guizot, introduced by Casimer Perier, compelled the government to consent to the abolition of the hereditary peerage, and the diminution (but not entire removal) of the electoral qualification.

(362.) The *Carlists* or Legitimists, who considered Henry V. (the Duke of Bordeaux) the rightful sovereign of France, had many adherents, especially in la Vendée, where the Duchesse de Berri, who personally exerted herself on behalf of her son, was arrested and banished the country. On the other hand, the *Republicans* endeavored to effect the overthrow of the ministry, if not of the throne itself, by means of societies, trades-unions, conspiracies, and émuetes in Paris, Lyons, and other cities. Several attempts were also made to assassinate the king (Fieschi's infernal machine, Alibaud, Meunier, Hubert, Darmès, Henry). The appearance of Louis Napoleon (a son of the ex-king of Holland) at Strasburg, in 1837, and at Boulogne in 1840, produced no important results. In order to preserve *peace with foreign powers*, Louis Philippe adopted a system of non-intervention, which he was compelled to violate on several occasions by the clamors of the opposition party (occupation of Ancona as a counterpoise to the invasion of Italy by the Austrians, sending a fleet to Lisbon, support afforded on two occasions to the Belgians against Holland, &c.).

(363.) The manner in which the mediation of France was employed in a dispute between the Pacha of Egypt and the Porte afforded Thiers an opportunity of attacking the foreign policy of the government so fiercely, that the king was obliged to dismiss his advisers, and form a liberal administration (1840), which well nigh involved France in a war with the four great powers, on account of the Eastern question. Louis Philippe then formed a new administration (Soult-Guizot), which directed all its efforts towards the maintenance of peace, and persuaded the chambers to sanction the fortification of Paris.

[1] The object of this system was the neutralization of the two extreme parties, by means of the centre or moderate party (tiers-parti.)

(364.) Considerable additions were made by conquest to the new colony of Algiers; but the colonists were perpetually harassed by the attacks of the Bedouins and Kabyles; among whom the most conspicuous was Abd-el-Kader, emir of the Arabian tribes of the province of Oran, who endeavored to effect a general rising of all the tribes, from the borders of Morocco to the city of Algiers. After a war, which was carried on with various success for three years (1834–37), peace was concluded on terms very favorable to the emir, the whole of the French force (under Bugeaud) being required for the reduction of Constantina, a city in the western part of the province. During this period preparations were made by Abd-el-Kader for the renewal of the war, which took place in 1839, on account of an alleged violation of his territory by the French. Tribe after tribe was subdued, and the emir himself was compelled to take refuge in the territory of Morocco, from which he sallied forth from time to time, until (in 1847) he was at last obliged to surrender to the French, who conveyed him a prisoner to France.

(365.) The support afforded to Abd-el-Kader by the population of Morocco, involved the sultan of that state (Muley Abderrahman) in a war with France in the year 1844. Tangier and Mogador were bombarded by a French fleet, commanded by the Prince de Joinville, and a victory gained by a land force under Marshal Bugeaud, on the banks of the river Isly. A peace was then concluded, the sultan engaging to prevent, as far as possible, any fresh outbreaks; but in the following year (1845) Abd-el-Kader crossed the frontier, and gained several victories over the French.

(366.) The attempts of Louis Philippe to render himself independent of the nation, his selfishness with regard to the Spanish marriage, and the closeness of his political connection with the absolute European powers, had rendered it impossible for him to obtain a majority in the chambers, except by bribery; and as this could only be effected as long as the number of electors was limited, he resisted with his usual obstinacy every proposal for the extension of the franchise. This policy disgusted all who looked to a reformed system of election, as the only means

of improving the administration, and greatly increased the numbers of the moderate Republican party.

(367.) Even the eyes of those who had been slow to credit the corruption of the government, were at last opened by the trial of two ex-ministers (Cubières and Teste) for bribery, and the desire for reform became universal. An order of the government for the suppression of reform dinners, founded, as they pretended, on a law passed at the beginning of the first revolution (1790), and especially an attempt on the part of the police, to prevent by force the holding of a reform banquet at Paris, provoked the opposition party (headed by Odillon Barrot) to propose the impeachment of ministers, a motion which was carried in the chamber of deputies after a stormy debate. The national guard and some of the troops of the line, having refused to act against the people (who had taken up arms on the 22d of February), Louis Philippe dismissed the Guizot ministry on the 23d, and tranquillity seemed to be completely restored; but on the evening of the same day fresh disturbances broke out, in consequence of some troops stationed in front of the foreign office having fired on the unarmed populace. Throughout the whole of that night the inhabitants of Paris were occupied in constructing barricades, and making preparations for active resistance on the morrow. Meanwhile, however, the king, alarmed at the increasing disaffection of his troops, and fearing an attack on the Tuileries, had abdicated in favor of the Comte de Paris, and quitted his palace, which was immediately plundered by the populace.

(368.) The Duchess of Orleans, accompanied by her two sons, having proceeded to the chamber of deputies for the purpose of obtaining their recognition of the Comte de Paris as king, and herself as regent, an armed multitude burst into the hall, and compelled the deputies to sanction the establishment of a provisional government, which proclaimed a republic at the Hôtel de Ville, and again on the Place de la Bastille, subject to the approbation of the great body of the people.

### C. Second French Republic (1848).

(369.) The provisional government commenced its proceedings by calling together the electoral colleges and a constituent assembly. The elective franchise was extended to all Frenchmen who had attained their twenty-first year, and all above twenty-five years of age were declared eligible as deputies, of whom about 900 were returned to the chamber. The constituent assembly having met on the 4th of May, and the republic having been again proclaimed, the provisional government dissolved itself, and was succeeded by an executive commission composed of five of its members (Arago, Garnier, Pagès, Marie, Lamartine, and Ledru Rollin). The most formidable opponents of these commissioners were the workmen (ouvriers), and the leaders of the communists (Barbès, Blanqui, Louis Blanc). The Revolutionists of February had pronounced it to be the duty of the state to provide employment for its citizens, and had followed up this declaration by the establishment of national workshops, with a view to the "organization of labor." The failure of this impracticable scheme produced great discontent among the workmen; and after a fruitless attempt (15th of May) on their part to overthrow the government, and extort contributions from the wealthier classes, the workshops were closed, and the men sent into the provinces. A sanguinary struggle ensued, in the course of which the Archbishop of Paris was shot, whilst addressing words of peace to the insurgents from one of the barricades. After four days' hard fighting (23d—26th of July), the malcontents were utterly defeated by General Cavaignac, formerly governor of Algiers. The city of Paris was then declared in a state of siege, and the powers of the executive commission transferred to Cavaignac, who immediately formed an administration, of which he declared himself president. More than 4000 of the insurgents were banished to the French settlements beyond seas, the national workshops suppressed, and the public clubs placed under the surveillance of the police.

(370.) By the new Constitution, France was declared to be a democratic republic, one and indivisible.

The legislative authority was committed to a single assembly of 750 members, elected by all Frenchmen who had attained their twenty-first year. All citizens above twenty-five years of age were eligible as representatives, with the exception of paid government functionaries. The executive authority was vested in a "President of the Republic," who was required by the constitution to be thirty years old, and a native of France. He was chosen for four years, by the direct suffrages of all the electors.

## § 61. *Holland and Belgium.*

(371.) At the suggestion of the English government, it had been settled by the Congress of Vienna, that the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium), and the Republic of Holland, should form together the Kingdom of the Netherlands, under William I., who received the grand duchy of Luxemburg as an indemnification for the German territory ceded by the house of Orange, and granted a representative constitution to the united kingdom. But the differences in character, language, and manners between the two nations, were too decided to admit of amalgamation; and the difficulty was still further increased by the arrogance of the Dutch, and the ill-judged attempts of the government to alter the laws and language of Belgium. After fifteen years of nominal union, during which complaints without number were made of the preference shown to natives of Holland, and the interference of the government in Church affairs, the Belgians, at length, instigated by the example of the French, broke out into open insurrection on the 25th of August, 1830, and demanded a separation of the two countries, as regarded laws and government. No sooner was this demand granted by the states-general, than the Belgians required national independence; and, finding that the Dutch were concentrating their troops in Brussels and Antwerp, again raised the standard of revolution in the capital; and established a provisional government; at the head of which they placed one De Potter, a political writer, who had been banished by the government. After four days' hard fighting (23d—26th Sept.), the Prince of Orange, who had en-

deavored to appease the revolutionists by several important concessions, was compelled to quit Brussels and retire to Antwerp The insurrection having extended itself to the whole of Belgium, the Dutch garrisons were every where forced to capitulate, except at Antwerp, where General Chassé retained possession of the citadel, and suppressed an insurrection, by bombarding the city. A *conference*, consisting of plenipotentiaries of the five great European powers, then assembled *in London*, at the request of the King of the Netherlands, and, having persuaded the contending parties to conclude an armistice, decided that the boundaries of the kingdom of the Netherlands should be the same as those of the Dutch republic previously to 1790, with the addition of the grand duchy of Luxemburg.

(372.) Meanwhile a national Congress, which had assembled at Brussels, and proclaimed the *independence of Belgium*, and the exclusion of the house of Orange from the Belgian throne, had framed a new constitution, and chosen Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg hereditary King of the Belgians (1831). Whilst the Conference of London was occupied in fruitless endeavors to settle the boundary question between the two nations, the King of Holland renewed the war, but was prevented from carrying his plans into effect by the appearance of a French army in Belgium. A new protocol was then issued by the conference, proposing the partition of Luxemburg and Limburg between Holland and Belgium, and charging Belgium with a share of the Dutch national debt. These conditions being rejected by the King of Holland, it was resolved to have recourse to coercive measures: and in the year 1832 Marshal Gérard re-entered Belgium at the head of a French army, and compelled Chassé, after a brave defence, to surrender the citadel of Antwerp. It was not, however, until the year 1839, that a treaty of peace was signed between the two nations. Luxemburg and Limburg remained divided.

(373.) In the Netherlands, the states-general having demanded a full statement of the financial condition of the country, as well as various reforms in the constitution and the establishment of ministerial responsibility,

the king (who was unwilling to comply with these requisitions, and had also refused to dismiss his unpopular mistress, the Countess d'Oultremont) abdicated in 1840, in favor of his son, William II.,[1] and, having married the countess, retired to Berlin, where he died (as Count of Nassau), in 1843. On his accession, the new king issued a proclamation declaring ministers responsible for their public acts; and sanctioned the imposition of a property tax, as the only practicable mode of improving the financial affairs of the nation, which were in a state of alarming depression.

(374.) In the year 1848, the government presented to the chambers the plan of a constitution, by which a direct election of representatives was substituted for the many indirect modes previously in use. The property qualification for electors was, however, still retained.

(375.) Since the revolution of 1831, Belgium has enjoyed almost uninterrupted tranquillity, notwithstanding the struggle for ascendency between the liberal and Roman Catholic parties. During that period, several great industrial enterprises have been successfully carried out, and railways constructed, by which the country is traversed in every direction. The French revolution of 1848 produced no effect on Belgium.

(376.) The chief articles of the Belgian constitution are as follows: equality of all Belgians before the law; abolition of hereditary distinctions; the right of assembling and forming associations; freedom of speech, of education, and of religious worship; complete separation of the church from the state; hereditary succession to the throne in the male line; legislation by two chambers, with a low qualification for electors; publicity of ju-

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[1] William I. (1815—1840.)

| William II. | | | | Frederick | | Marianne m. Prince Albert of Prussia. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| William. | Alexander. † 1848. | Henry. | Sophia. Hereditary G. Duchess of Saxe Weimar. | Louisa. | Mary. | |
| William. | Maurice. | | | | | |

dicial proceedings; trial by jury in criminal and political cases, and in all prosecutions of the press.

### § 62. *Great Britain.*[1]

(377.) George IV. (1820—1830.) George Canning, prime minister. Recognition of the free States of America. Maintenance by the English Government of the Constitution in Portugal. Election of O'Connell to a seat in parliament, who, though a Roman Catholic, threatens to take his seat in defiance of the Test Act.

(388.) Act for the Emancipation of the Roman Catholics carried by the Wellington Administration, receives the royal assent. (1829.)

(379.) William IV. (brother of George IV.) A whig ministry formed with Earl Grey at its head. Parliament dissolved, and the Reform-Bill twice thrown out by the House of Lords. Reform Act receives the royal assent. The monopoly hitherto enjoyed by the East India Company is abolished by Lord Melbourne's administration.

(380.) Victoria (daughter of the Duke of Kent; niece of George IV. and William IV., 1837). Marries Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg. Hanover (where females are excluded from the succession by the Salique law) separated from England, and made an independent kingdom under the Duke of Cumberland (Ernest Augustus), brother of William IV.

(381.) War with Persia (1838—1843). Two wars with China (1840—1842 and 1846, 1847) end in the cession of Hong-Kong to the British government, and the admission of British subjects into China.

### § 63. *Germany.*

#### A. Germany, a confederacy of states. (1815—1848.)

(382.) Considerable difference of opinion had arisen,

[1] I have thought it best to give a mere chronological outline of this part of English history, as the events are, perhaps, too recent, and men's opinions too divided with regard to their nature and character, to warrant a fuller statement in a book intended for young persons. R. B. P.

during the session of the Congress at Vienna, respecting the future constitution of Germany, the smaller princes desiring the restoration of the empire under a common head, whilst Austria and Prussia advocated the establishment of a federal union of independent states. The unexpected return of Napoleon compelled the German states to unite for mutual defence, but no assimilation of institutions was attempted. In Prussia, where the prime minister, Baron von Stein (1807, 1808), and the Chancellor Hardenberg (1810—1812), had already effected several importartant reforms (abolition of hereditary serfdom, equalization of taxes, removal of all restrictions on industry, &c.), the constitution was still further liberalized, and preparations were made for the establishment of a representative government; whilst in Austria, on the contrary, a system was pursued by Prince Metternich, the chief object of which was the maintenance of the imperial prerogative. After a time, this system was also adopted by Prussia, whilst in Baden, Bavaria, Würtemburg, and several of the smaller states, the tardiness with which the governments carried into effect the plans of constitutional reform recommended by the diet of the confederation, excited the suspicions of the liberal party, and produced demonstrations (at the Wartburg festival, in 1817—assassination of Kotzebue,[1] by a student named George Sand, in 1819), which compelled their rulers to adopt a reactionary policy. A conference of ministers was accordingly summoned (1819), by Prince Metternich, to meet at Carlsbad, where resolutions were passed condemnatory of these "demagogue attempts," and a plan proposed for establishing a surveillance of university professors and students by government commissioners, and for restricting the liberty of the press. In the following year (1820), a ministerial Congress assembled at Vienna, and adopted measures of a still more arbitrary character. Meanwhile Hanover, Brunswick, and Hesse-Darmstadt had also received representative constitutions. In Prussia, by a law passed during the Hardenberg administration, the

[1] A dramatic writer, and editor of a political journal, in which the "liberal" party were held up to public contempt.

debt of 180 millions of Prussian dollars was declared to be balanced, and the raising of fresh loans was made dependent on the consent of the estates; but after the death of that minister, in 1823, provincial estates, in which the influence of the great landed proprietors preponderated, were substituted for those of the kingdom. For a period of ten years the German nation continued to enjoy uninterrupted tranquillity both at home and abroad, but immediately after the Paris revolution of July, insurrectionary movements took place in some of the states. In *Brunswick*, the Duke (Charles), whose capricious tyranny had rendered him universally odious, was deposed, and his brother William raised to the throne: in the kingdom of *Saxony*, as well as in *Hesse-Cassel* and *Hanover*, the sovereigns were compelled to grant constitutions; whilst, in the constitutional states of the south of Germany, the restoration of the liberty of the press was demanded by the representatives of the people.

(383.) As long as the result of the French outbreak seemed uncertain, and the territories of the two great German powers were threatened by the Poles, the confederation abstained from any aggressive movement; but no sooner was intelligence received of the fall of Warsaw, than the diet (1832), at the suggestion of Austria, adopted a series of resolutions, by which the development of the constitutional system was still farther restricted (censorship of the press; prohibition of political unions, and public meetings, &c., &c.). The only effect produced by these political demonstrations was the enactment of still more tyrannical laws by the diet, which now constituted itself a court of appeal in all disputes between the executive and representative powers.

(384). How little security the people possessed for the continuance of their constitutional governments was seen in the instance of Hanover, where King Ernest Augustus repudiated the law of 1833, on the ground of its having been passed without receiving his assent, as heir-presumptive to the crown, and summoned the estates to form a new constitution (founded on that of 1819), which was at last voted, after a severe struggle and several adjournments.

(385.) In Austria, after the death of the Emperor Francis I., the absolute system was rigidly maintained by his son, Ferdinand I.; whilst in Prussia, where an important step towards the establishment of German unity had been taken in the formation (1833) and subsequent extension of the Zollverein (commercial league), several concessions were made by Frederick William IV., immediately after his accession in 1840. Among these we may mention as the most important, the relaxation of the censorship, the summoning of provincial diets every two (instead of every three) years, publicity of courts of justice (granted in 1846), publication of an edict respecting religious toleration, and lastly (in 1847), the formation out of the provincial diets of a "united national diet," with the power of contracting loans and imposing taxes, but with only the power of advising on questions of legislation.

(386.) On the 11th of April, 1847, the first session of the "united national diet" was opened with a speech from the throne, which annihilated the hopes of those who had expected some intimation of the king's readiness to grant a constitution. In the following year (12th of Feb. 1848), a proposal (which had originally been brought forward in 1814, and again by Welcher, in 1831), for the establishment of a German parliament in place of the federal diet, was submitted to the chamber of Baden, and denounced by the government as "utterly impracticable;" whilst nearly at the same time disturbances took place at Munich, in consequence of an order for the suppression of the university, which the King of Bavaria had been persuaded to issue by his mistress, a Spanish dancer, named Lola Montes, whom he had created Countess of Lansfeld, and who had procured the dismissal of the minister Abel, in 1847. After a struggle, which lasted several days, the order was revoked, and Lola Montes was compelled to quit the country. Whilst the political affairs of Germany were in this unsettled state, intelligence arrived of the third French revolution, and the overthrow of a throne which had seemed too firmly established to be shaken during the lifetime of Louis Philippe.

## B. Germany a federal state (1848).

(387.) The first effects of this intelligence manifested themselves in the frontier states of Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, where the chambers were assembled, and freedom of the press, and the establishment of a national guard, were granted by the government, in consequence of their energetic representatives. A body of fifty-one representatives, from the south-western states, also assembled at Heidelberg, for the purpose of inviting the attendance at Frankfort of deputies from all the states; whilst, at the same time, a proposal was brought forward in the chamber at Darmstadt, by Henry von Gagern, for the convocation of a national representative assembly, and the nomination of a head of the confederacy. In Würtemberg the government yielded at once, and unconditionally, to the wishes of the people, and called together the chambers (which had been prorogued a short time before), for the purpose of submitting to them the plan of a new constitution. The initiative in a project for relieving the people from feudal burdens, was taken by the nobles themselves, the chambers undertaking to indemnify them for any loss which they might sustain. In Bavaria and Nassau the chambers were convoked, and extensive schemes of reform submitted to them. At Munich, fresh disturbances having taken place, in consequence of a report that the Countess of Lansfeld (386) had returned to Bavaria, the king was induced to abdicate in favor of his son, Maximilian II., who immediately opened the chambers, and gave his assent to an act embodying all the reforms which had been promised to the nation. In Hesse-Cassel, the movement commenced, not in the capital, but in that portion of the principality which lay nearest to the disturbed southern states, where the demands of the people were granted, in consequence of the representations of a deputation from Hanau. In Saxony, Hanover, and most of the smaller states, the transition from the old to the new state of things was accomplished with comparative facility, whilst in Austria and Prussia the attempts of the reform party produced the most fearful convulsions: in Austria, the Hungarian diet, on receiving intelligence of

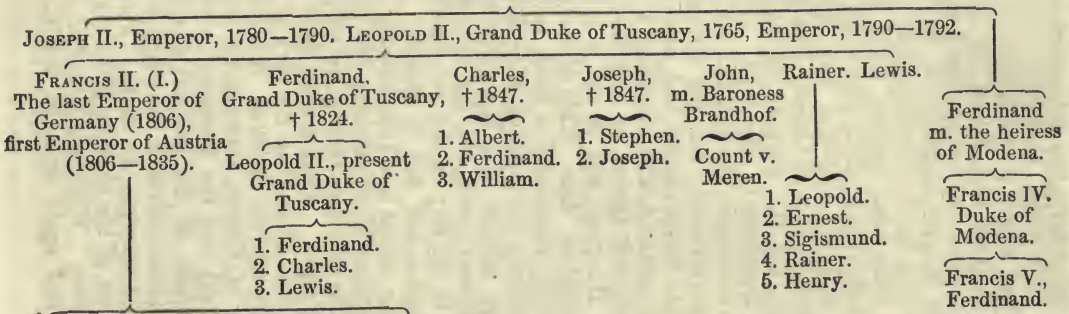
the French revolution, demanded, at the suggestion of Kossuth, a real representative system for all parts of the empire, and a separate responsible administration for Hungary. All these demands were granted through the influence of the Archduke Stephen. Meanwhile the students of Vienna, supported by a large body of insurgents, had compelled the estates of Lower Austria (on the day of their assembling, March 13th), to appoint a committee for the purpose of communicating the wishes of the people to the emperor; but their demands for freedom of the press, and the establishment of a national guard, were not granted, until several deputations had been sent by the university, and Metternich had resigned his office.

(388.) A progress of the emperor through the city, during which he was loudly cheered by the people, was followed by the distinct promise of a constitution (15th of March), the formation of a responsible administration (18th), and a general amnesty for all political offences (20th). In Hungary, the nobles gave up their privilege of exemption from taxation, and other feudal rights. Meanwhile, however, the joy occasioned by the supposed success of this almost bloodless revolution was well-nigh changed into despair, by the appearance of a government scheme for the formation of a single chamber, to be composed exclusively of nobles, who were to be elected by persons possessing a considerable property qualification. After consenting (in consequence of a monster petition presented on the 15th of May) to the establishment of a constituent imperial diet, consisting of one chamber, and a revision of the law of election, the emperor fled to the Tyrol, in the hope of more effectually combating, from that distant locality, the designs of the revolutionary party. The diet was opened by the Archduke John, on the 22nd of July, and soon afterwards the emperor returned to his capital. Almost contemporaneously with the occurrence of these events in Austria, an attempt was made by the Milanese to throw off the Austrian yoke. This revolutionary movement was abetted by Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, who placed himself at the head of the insurgent Lombards, and drove back the imperial troops as far

as the Adige. Meanwhile a republic had been proclaimed at Venice. But after the defeat of the insurgents by General Radetzky (at Custozza, between Milan and Villa Franca), and the recapture of Milan by the Austrians, an armistice was concluded between the contending parties.

## 389. *The House of Lorraine in Austria, Tuscany, Modena, and Parma.*

Francis I., Grand Duke of Tuscany, 1737, Emperor, 1745—1765, mar. Maria Theresa.



(390.) Whilst this contest was still undecided, a struggle of an equally determined character commenced between the two nations whose union formed the kingdom of Hungary, the Magyars and Slaves (or Sclavonians). The latter of these tribes, considering itself aggrieved by the adoption of the Magyar language at the Hungarian diet, had formed a plan for the establishment of an independent southern Sclavonian empire, which they determined, in case of necessity, to place under the protection of Russia: but a different direction was given to the movement by Jellachich, Ban of Croatia, who proposed a union with Austria, for the purpose of depriving the Magyars of their hegemony in Hungary. At the commencement of the revolution, the Ban had been outlawed by the Austrian government; but the struggles of the Magyars for complete independence had now become so formidable, that the emperor, after receiving a visit from Jellachich, at Innsbruck, agreed to nominate him commander-in-chief in Hungary, and issued a proclamation dissolving the Hungarian diet. This alliance with the Slavish nation having occasioned a fresh revolution at Vienna (6th of October), the emperor, after the march of the Imperial troops against the Hungarians had been opposed by the national guard, and the minister of war (Latour) sacrificed to the fury of the populace, a second time quitted his capital, and fled to Olmutz. The command in chief of the troops in all the imperial states was now conferred on Prince Windischgratz, who had distinguished himself in the previous June by the suppression of an insurrection at Prague. After a three days' bombardment, and an ineffectual attempt on the part of the Hungarians to throw themselves between Windisgratz and Jellachich, the city of Vienna surrendered unconditionally (1st of November), and the insurgent leaders (Messenhauser, commandant of the national guard, Robert Blum, one of the representatives in the imperial diet, and several other persons) were put to death. The emperor now abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph I., a youth of eighteen. Windischgratz and Jellachich united their forces and again attacked the Hungarians.

The diet was prorogued, and its place of meeting changed to Kremsier, in Moravia.

(391.) In Prussia, a Committee (unrecognized by a portion of the representative body) was busily engaged in preparing the project of a new criminal law, when intelligence arrived of the French revolution, and the success which had attended the movements of the liberal party in all the countries of South-western Germany. Under such circumstances, the consent of the government to the regular convocation of the united diet, under certain restrictions, and in its ancient form, as well as the ambiguous terms in which freedom of the press was promised, occasioned more uneasiness than satisfaction. Tumultuous meetings were held in the capital, and dispersed one after another by the military, and whilst the agitation of the popular mind was at its greatest height, accounts were received of insurrections in the provinces, and the triumph of the revolutionary party at Vienna. The government now deemed it the most prudent course to make several important concessions (18th of March), which were received the more readily by the people, because a prospect was held out to them of obtaining the complete re-organization of the German constitution, and the establishment of one federal state in the place of a confederacy of independent states; but the refusal of the government to withdraw the military from Berlin soon occasioned a fresh outbreak, and a sanguinary barricade skirmish took place (18th, 19th of March), in the streets of that city, which ended in the removal of the troops, the dismissal of the ministry, the establishment of a national guard, and a general amnesty for all political offences. These concessions were speedily followed by the appointment of a responsible administration, in which Camphausen, Hansemann, von Auerswald, and the Count Von Schwerin (all leading men in the first united diet) filled the most important offices.

(392.) The second united diet, which lasted only from the 2nd to the 10th of April, restricted itself to the discussion of a few indispensable measures of finance, and certain details of the proposed new constitution. On the 22nd of May, the representative assembly opened its ses-

sion, and appointed a committee to frame a new constitution; the plan proposed by the government being considered unsatisfactory. Scarcely, however, had their deliberations commenced, when the session was adjourned to Brandenburgh, in consequence of the unsettled state of the capital. An attempt on the part of a majority of the chamber to continue the session at Berlin was put down by force; but the result of this dispute between the representative body and the government was the attendance at Brandenburg of a very small number of members, and the dissolution of the chamber by the king, who himself granted a constitution (5th of December), subject to the revision of two chambers, to be chosen by indirect election.

(393.) Foundation of a federal state.—Whilst such changes as these were taking place in individual states, a preliminary parliament, convened on the recommendation of the deputies assembled at Heidelberg (31st of March), had agreed that a general constituent assembly should be held at Frankfort, to which deputies should be sent (one for every 50,000 inhabitants) from every part of Germany, including East and West Prussia, and Schleswig. The election of these deputies was to be conducted according to a plan arranged by the government of each state, it being merely stipulated that no pecuniary qualification should be required for electors. Until the meeting of this assembly, the nation was to be represented by a committee of fifty individuals. At the suggestion of Prussia, a portion of the grand duchy of Posen was included in the German confederacy.

(394.) The constituent assembly commenced its session in the church of St. Paul, at Frankfort, on the 18th of May, and immediately passed a resolution declariug all its acts binding on every state of Germany, and voted a sum of three million Prussian dollars for the formation of the "nucleus" of a German fleet. Before the question of the constitution was brought forward, the assembly passed an act for the establishment of a central government for all Germany, and on the 29th of June elected the Archduke John of Austria imperial stattholder of Germany, and the diet dissolved itself, after engaging in the

names of the different states, that the title of the statt-holder should be recognized by them immediately after his election. The assembly, under the direction of Henry von Gagern, then occupied itself with questions affecting the privileges of the German people, and the discussion of plans for the establishment of a constitution. A resolution, carried by a feeble majority, approving the conclusion of an armistice by Prussia with Denmark, in the name of the central government, occasioned an émeute in Frankfort (18th of September), in which two deputies of the right (Prince Lichnowsky and Colonel von Auerswald) were murdered.

## § 64. *Russia.*

(395.) During the reign of Alexander I. 1801—1825), considerable additions were made to the Russian empire, by the annexation of Finland (1809), Bessarabia, and a part of Moldavia (at the peace of Bucharest, in 1812), and the kingdom of Poland (at the Congress of Vienna, in 1815). The attention of the emperor was also directed to measures of domestic improvement, during the periods of comparative tranquillity which preceded and followed the great war with Napoleon. For example, preparations were made for the abolition of serfdom throughout the empire, a plan which was actually carried into effect on the estates belonging to the crown; universities were founded at Dorpat, Charhow, Kasan, Warsaw, and St. Petersburg; the ancient code was amended and new laws enacted, many abuses in the administration were removed, attempts were made to facilitate the maintenance of a large standing army by the establishment of military

* PAUL, † 1801.

| ALEXANDER, † 1825. | Constantine, † 1831. | Grand Duchess of Saxe Weimar. | Queen of the Netherlands. | NICHOLAS. | Michael. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

| Alexander, | Grand Duchess of Leuchtenberg. | Crown Princess of Würtemberg. | Constantine, mar. Alexandra of Saxe-Altenberg. | Nicholas. | Michael. | Catherine. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

| Alexandra. Alexander. | Nicholas. Wladimir. |
|---|---|

colonies, and commerce and manufacturing industry were encouraged in various ways. The emperor, who frequently visited even the most remote provinces of his empire, was surprised by death during one of these progresses (at Taganrog), and succeeded by his brother Nicholas I., his brother Constantine having previously renounced all claim to the succession, in consequence of his second marriage with a lady of inferior rank.

(396.) The commencement of the new reign (in 1825) was signalized by the suppression of a military conspiracy, set on foot for the purposeof replacing Constantine on the throne, and establishing a constitutional government. Through the unwearied exertions of the emperor, many important reforms were effected in the administration of public affairs. In the year 1833, a general code of laws was published, under the auspices of Nicholas, who endeavored to excite a feeling of nationality by the extension of the Russian language, and the Russo-Greek church.

(397.) *The Russian-Persian war* (1826—1828), occasioned by the invasion of the Russian territory by the Persian Crown Prince Abbas Mirza, for the purpose of reconquering some tracts of country which had formerly been ceded to Russia, was terminated by Paskewitsch (who conquered Erivan and Taurus). A peace was concluded on terms exceedingly favorable to Russia, the provinces of Eviran and Nahitschewan being ceded to her, and united under the name of Armenia, and the free navigation of the Caspian being also secured.

(398.) *The Russian-Turkish war* (1828, 1829).—The obstinate refusal of the Porte to fulfil all the conditions of the peace of Bucharest, and the subsequent convention of Akjerman (by which Moldavia and Wallachia were rendered almost independent), involved that power in a fresh war with Russia, at a time when the destruction of the corps of Janizaries had deprived Turkey of her best and bravest soldiers. Moldavia and Wallachia were occupied by Wittgenstein, who was compelled, after storming Varna and other Turkish fortresses, to raise the siege of Silistria, and retire beyond the Danube; but in the year 1829 his successor, General Diebitsch, after gaining a decisive victory over the grand vizier, crossed the *Balkan* (called

by the Turks Sabalkanski, *the impassable*), and advanced to Adrianople; whilst Paskewitsch, after the capture of Erzerum, penetrated farther and farther into the heart of Asia Minor.

(399.) The sultan now sued for peace, which was concluded at Adrianople, in 1829. It was agreed that the Pruth and Danabe should thenceforth form the boundary line between the two nations; that Russia should take possession of certain fortresses in Asia, and enjoy the free navigation of the Danube, Black Sea, and Straits; and that Moldavia, Wallachia, and Servia should still pay tribute to the Porte, but be governed by princes of their own, under the protection of Russia.

(400.) *The Russian-Polish war* (1830, 1831).—The new kingdom of Poland, created by the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, had received from the Emperor Alexander a representative constitution and a government of its own; but the Polish nobles still yearned after national independence, and offered every opposition in their power to the government of the Archduke Constantine. Under such circumstances, the effects of the July revolution soon manifested themselves in Poland. An insurrectionary movement, commenced by about twenty students of the military school of Warsaw, on the 29th of November, 1830, rapidly extended itself to every part of the kingdom. The Archduke Constantine narrowly escaped assassination, the house of Romanow was set aside, the throne of Poland declared vacant, and a provisional government established under the presidency of Prince Czartoryski.

(401.) In the following February, General Diebitsch, at the head of 120,000 men, crossed the Bug, and after sustaining several checks (at Grochow, Bialolenka, &c.), and being cut off from all communication with Russia, by insurrections in Lithuania and Podolia, at length defeated Skrzynecki, in the battle of Ostrolenka (26th of May, 1831). Two days after this victory, Diebitsch died of the cholera (which also carried off the Grand Duke Constantine); but his successor, Paskewitsch, crossed the Vistula, near Thorn, and invested Warsaw, which capitulated on the 8th of September. Of the Polish insurgents, some were compelled to lay down their arms within the Prus-

sian and Austrian frontiers, whilst others fled to France and England, or embarked for America. Poland was deprived of her constitution, and reduced to the condition of a Russian province (1832), retaining, however, her own code of laws, which was administered by a governor nominated by the emperor. The first governor was Count Paskewitsch Erivanski, who was created Prince of Warsaw. A subsequent conspiracy (1846), the ramifications of which extended over the whole of Prussian and Austrian Poland, was discovered before the plans of the conspirators were fully matured, and easily crushed.

(402.) A war carried on by Russia against the mountaineers of the Caucasus, especially the Circassians, produced no important results. The republic of Cracow, being too weak to resist the political attempts of the Polish exiles, was incorporated into the Austrian empire, with consent of the three great northern powers (1846).

§ 65. *The Ottoman, or Osmanic Empire and Greece.*

(403.) The Osmanic empire, which had been gradually declining during the reign of Mahomet II. (1808—1839), was indebted for its preservation from utter destruction to the mutual jealousies of the great European powers. The pashas, especially those at a distance (in Janina, Aleppo, and Egypt), set at nought the authority of the sultan, and governed their respective pashalics as independent princes.

(404.) Greek War of liberation (1821—1828).—In the year 1821, Alexander Ypsilanti, son of a banished prince of Moldavia, issued as president of the Hetæria (originally a literary, and subsequently a political association), a proclamation calling on the Greeks to throw off their allegiance to the Turkish government, which was at that time occupied in putting down an insurrectionary movement headed by Ali, pasha of Janina. Unfortunately, however, for the success of the Greek cause, assistance was refused by the Emperor Alexander, on whose co-operation the insurgents had confidently reckoned. The patriot army having been betrayed into the hands of the Turks, their leader, Ypsilanti, fled to Vienna, where he died in 1828.

(405.) Insurrections in Wallachia and Moldavia were suppressed at the same time. Notwithstanding this check, however, the Greek patriots, irritated by the revolting cruelties practised by the Turkish government even on these who had taken no part in the movement (hanging of the Patriarch of Constantinople and his bishops over the principal door of their cathedral), again raised the standard of revolt in the Morea, Hellas, Thessaly, and several of the islands: and in the year 1822 *a national Congress, assembled* at Epidaurus, *proclaimed the independence of Greece, and published the outline of a constitution.* The Greek patriots were soon joined by large bodies of Philhellenes from every part of Europe, whilst, on the other hand, the Porte was assisted (1825) by a considerable force under the command of Ibrahim Pacha, son of Mohammed Ali, pasha of Egypt, who had been induced to send this reinforcement by the fair promises of the Turkish government. The invader soon overran the greater part of the Morea; and in the following year (1826) the garrison of Missolunghi (commanded by Noto Bozzaris) was compelled by famine to surrender, after making a brave defence, and the Acropolis of Athens also fell into the hands of the enemy. The Greek cause now seemed utterly ruined, when *a convention* was entered into *in London* (1827), by George IV., Nicholas I., and Charles X., for the pacification of Greece: and tranquillity was re-established (for seven years), *by the election of the ex-minister of state, Count Capo d'Istrias, to the office of president of Greece.* The mediation of the three great powers having been rejected by the Porte, a combined Russian, French, and English fleet (under Heyden, de Rigny, and Codrington) was dispatched to the Morea, and on the 20th of October, 1827, the Turco-Egyptian fleet was utterly destroyed in the battle of Navarino. Soon after this victory a French army, under Maison, landed in the Morea, and compelled Ibrahim to re-embark his troops, and return to Egypt. The three protecting powers then declared Greece an independent kingdom, settled its northern boundary along a line drawn from the gulf of Volo to that of Arta, and offered the crown to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. This offer being rejected, and the presi-

dent, Capo d'Istrias (whose severity had rendered him exceedingly unpopular), having fallen by the hand of an assassin, the great powers nominated, as hereditary King of Greece, Prince Otho of Bavaria (1832), who was immediately accepted by the Greek national assembly, and recognized by the Porte in 1834. After a short sojourn at Nauplin, the new sovereign fixed his residence at Athens. In the year 1835, Otho himself assumed the reins of government, which had been held by a council of regency during his minority. Meanwhile, however, the elements of civil discord were at work. Not only had each of the three protecting powers its partisans in Greece, but the whole nation was also split into two great parties (the national and foreign), in consequence of the hatred with which a great part of the nation regarded the German civil and military functionaries. Between these five parties the government perpetually vacillated; and, notwithstanding the grant of a new constitution, in consequence of an insurrection at Athens, in 1843, the struggle still continued, and every plan for the welfare of the country was rendered abortive, by the emptiness of the exchequer, and the universal prevalence of anarchy and discontent. Whilst the Porte was engaged in the contest with Greece, the resistance of the corps of Janizaries (the flower of the Turkish infantry) to the military reforms of the sultan occasioned the dissolution and partial destruction of that force.

(406.) Scarcely was *the war* with *Russia* (see § 64) ended, when revolts occurred in several provinces. Among these, the most formidable was that of the *Viceroy of Egypt*, Mohammed Ali (1831—1833), whose son Ibrahim conquered Syria, and, after defeating the grand vizier at Konieh, was advancing on Constantinople, when a Russian force, sent by the Emperor Nicholas I. to the assistance of his former enemy, landed in Asia Minor, and prevented the further progress of the Egyptian army. A peace was then concluded on terms very favorable to Mohammed Ali, who was permitted to retain his vice-royalty of Egypt and Candia, and to occupy Syria, on payment of a tribute. Relying on the discontents occasioned by the administration of Ibrahim in Syria, the sultan, in the last

year of his reign (1839), again attempted the subjugation of Mohammed Ali; but the Turkish army was utterly defeated at Nisib, and in the following year Mohammed Ali obtained from the sultan (1839),

(407.) Abdul Medschid (a lad of sixteen), a grant of the hereditary vice-royalty of Egypt. His demand that all the territory subject to his control should be granted to him on the same terms was refused, in consequence of the armed interference of the three great powers (Syria conquered by the Austrians and English). At the court of the young sultan, whose excesses soon reduced him to a state of almost hopeless debility, considerable influence was acquired by a liberal party, headed by Reschid Pasha, who carried into effect several important reforms. Security for life, property, and honor was guaranteed to all the subjects of the Porte, without regard to their religious creed or country, an equitable system of taxation was promised, and the several provinces were invited to send deputies to Constantinople, for the purpose of deliberating on the best mode of carrying the plans of the government into effect; but the apathy and ignorance of the people rendered these liberal measures almost nugatory. Repeated but unsuccessful attempts to throw off the Turkish yoke were made by the Christian population in the provinces of the southern Danube.

## § 66. *Italy.*

(408.) Italy was indebted to the French for several important legislative and constitutional reforms, all of which were cancelled on the return of her former rulers. Even in Sicily, which had preserved its independence throughout the whole period of the French usurpation, a constitution had been granted by the king in 1812, at the instance of the English government; but, on the return of Ferdinand to Naples, this concession was revoked. In the year 1820, the Carbonari, a political society whose professed object was the union of all the Italian states under one constitutional sovereign, were encouraged by the accounts which they received of the revolutionary movement in Spain to attempt the re-establishment of the constitu-

tion of 1812. The king having unwillingly granted their demands, it was resolved, on the motion of Prince Metternich, by a Congress of Sovereigns (which was opened at Troppau and adjourned to Laibach), that an Austrian army should be dispatched to Naples. Immediately after the return of the king from Laibach, the constitution of 1812 was replaced by one of a less liberal character, with two chambers, the members of which were nominated by the government. Similar insurrections were also suppressed by the Austrians in Piedmont, Modena, Parma, and the States of the Church, in which seven provinces had renounced their allegiance to the pope (Gregory XVI).

(409.) Immediately after the French Revolution of February, 1848, the absolute system was broken up in Italy. The first step in this direction was taken by Pope Pius IX. (elected in 1846), who established a council of state, sanctioned the formation of a national guard, and admitted laymen to offices in the administration.

(410.) At Naples, in consequence of an insurrection in Sicily (12th of January, 1848), a constitutional government was established; an example which was soon followed by Sardinia, Tuscany, and Rome. By the constitutions of all these states the legislative authority is vested in two chambers; the members of the first being nominated for life by the sovereign. The Sicilians alone demanded a separate government and the constitution of 1812; but, after a severe (and, at one time, nearly successful) struggle, were compelled to return to their allegiance. In Parma, where the Duke of Lucca (who had resigned Lucca to the Grand Duke of Tuscany) succeeded Maria Louisa in 1847—and in Modena the sovereigns were driven from their thrones in consequence of their refusing to comply with the demands of the people. Meanwhile, Lombardy had also revolted from the Austrians, and the city of Milan had expelled the Austrian garrison; but after a three months' struggle, Charles Albert, King of Sardinia (who had supported the insurgents), was defeated by the Austrian general, Radetzky, at Custozza, near Mantua; Milan capitulated, and the exiled dukes returned to their dominions. On the other hand, the pope, in consequence of an émeute at Rome,

which was immediately followed by the assassination of the minister Rossi, was compelled to nominate an administration recommended by the republican party (Mamiani-Sterbini), and immediately afterwards quitted the papal states.[1]

## § 67. *Switzerland.*

(411.) Since the year 1814 the government had been almost exclusively in the hands of the patricians; but here, as elsewhere, the French revolution of July occasioned the general establishment of democratic constitutions, which had always existed in the three original cantons (Uri, Schwys, and Unterwalden). In the canton of Bâsle a civil war broke out, and caused the separation of the city from the country (each having half a vote at the diet). Fresh disturbances were produced on the one side by the suppression of several monastic establishments in the canton of Aargau; and on the other, by the admission of the Jesuits into Lucerne. Two attacks on the city of Lucerne, by parties of exiles and adventurers from the neighboring cantons, for the purpose of compelling the government to expel the Jesuits, miscarried in consequence of their want of military skill; but, on the other hand, the "Sonderbund" ('separate confederacy'), which Lucerne had formed (1845) with the three original cantons of Schwyz, Uri, and Unterwalden, as well as with the cantons of Zug, Freiburg, and Vallais, for self-defence against the attacks of the free corps, was pronounced by the diet to be unconstitutional, and, after a short struggle, was broken up (1847); whereupon the Jesuits were banished from Switzerland.

(412.) In the year 1848 the federal constitution was revised, and two chambers established by the diet. According to the new arrangement, the assembly consists of a national council of 111 members (one for every 20,000 inhabitants), and a council composed of forty-four deputies of cantons. The supreme executive authority is vested in a federal council, consisting of seven members,

[1] He returned to Rome, in 1850, after the city had been stormed, and for a long time occupied, by French troops.

chosen (for three years) out of the two councils, with a president elected for one year by both chambers. This constitution was accepted by all the cantons except Uri, Unterwalden, Schwyz, Appenzeil, and Bâsle (country). The sessions of the federal assembly are held at Berne.

(413.) The connection of Neufchâtel with Prussia was dissolved.

## § 68. *Spain.*

(414.) Ferdinand VII.[1] (1814—1833), after his return from France, had abolished the constitution, re-established absolute sovereignty, and crushed all attempts of the 'liberal' party with the most unrelenting severity. After the failure of a series of isolated insurrectionary movements, a revolution broke out in the year 1820, commencing with the army destined to reduce the revolted provinces in South America, and soon extending itself to the capital, and compelling the king to restore the constitution of 1812 and convoke the Cortes. Whilst Spain was distracted by the attempts of the reactionary party to re-establish absolutism, and of the ultra-liberals to introduce a republic, the Congress of Sovereigns at Verona determined to reinstate the king in the position which he had occupied before the revolution, and intrusted the execution of their design to the King of France. Almost without opposition, a French army, under the command of the Duc d'Angoulême, marched through Spain to Cadiz, whither the Cortes had forcibly conveyed the king, and compelled that body to dissolve itself. Absolutism was then re-established; and, notwithstanding the promise of an amnesty, many of the liberal leaders were executed,

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[1] Charles IV.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Ferdinand VII., mar. secondly, Christina of Naples. | Don Carlos. Charles. John. Ferdinand. | Francesco de Paula. Francis, mar. Isabella II. Henry. Ferdinand. |
| Isabella II., mar. Francis. | Louisa, mar. the Duke de Montpensier. | |

banished, or thrown into prison. Fresh discontents were excited by the abrogation of the Salic law (introduced by Philip V. in 1713, with consent of the Cortes), a measure which Ferdinand was persuaded by his second wife Christina to adopt, without consulting either the heir presumptive or the Cortes. Ferdinand died in 1833, and was succeeded by his daughter Isabella II. (a child of three years old), who commenced her reign under the guardianship of her mother, Maria Christina. Meanwhile, however, her uncle, Don Carlos, had assumed the title of king, and been recognized by the Basque provinces, where great irritation prevailed in consequence of the withdrawal of many of the privileges (feuros) which they had enjoyed from time immemorial. Under these circumstances, a fearful civil war commenced (1833—1840), in which the Christinos (under Bodil, Mina, Cordova, and Espartero,) were supported by English and French volunteers, but were unable, from want of funds, to put down the Carlists (under Zumalacarreguy, Villareal, Moreno, Cabrera, &c.) until the year 1840, when Don Carlos and his partisans were driven across the frontier into France. In return for the restoration of their privileges by the Cortes, the Basque-Navarrese provinces recognized Isabella as queen. In 1845, Don Carlos abdicated in favor of his eldest son, the Prince of Asturia. Meanwhile, the queen-regent, after a continued struggle with the 'liberal' party, was compelled, in consequence of a mutiny among the troops (1835), to receive the constitution of 1812, with certain modifications introduced by the Cortes (establishment of a second chamber, grant of an unconditional veto to the crown, &c.); but the passing of an unpopular municipal law occasioned fresh disturbances, which compelled the regent to resign her office in 1840. After the short regency of General Espartero, who was supported by an unnatural union of the republicans and Carlists, the Cortes (in 1843) declared the queen of age (in her thirteenth year), and in 1845 granted increased powers to the crown by a new constitution. In the following year (1846) the queen married her cousin, the Infant Don Francisco d'Assisi, and gave her sister to the Duc de Montpensier, son of Louis Philippe, king of the French.

## § 69. *Portugal.*

(415.) King John VI.,[1] who had remained in Brazil since the expulsion of the French from Portugal, leaving the government of his European dominions to the Patriarch of Lisbon and Lord Beresford, was induced, in consequence of a *military revolution* which *broke out at Oporto* in 1820 (immediately after the Spanish revolution), to return to Lisbon, where he was compelled to swear fidelity to a constitution of a still more democratic character than that which had been established in Spain: but this oath he was soon persuaded to violate by the court party, headed by his wife and his second son, Don Miguel. At the same time, his eldest son, *Don Pedro*, who had been left behind in Brazil, proclaimed that province *an independent empire*, and assumed the title of *Emperor of Brazil* in 1822. After the death of his father (1826) he granted a new and tolerably liberal constitution to Portugal, and then resigned the crown of Portugal in favor of his daughter (a minor),

(416.) Donna Maria da Gloria (1826), who was betrothed to her uncle, Don Miguel. After setting aside the constitution granted by his brother, Miguel convoked the so-called ancient Cortes (of Zamego), which proclaimed him absolute king in 1828; but in the year 1833 Don Pedro, who had resigned the crown of Brazil in favor of his son, Don Pedro II., arrived unexpectedly in Europe, and reconquered Portugal for his daughter. The con-

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[1] John VI. † 1826.

- Pedro I. † 1834.
  - Maria II., mar. 1. Augustus of Leuchtenberg. 2. Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg.
  - Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil.
- Maria, Regent (1826—1828).
- Miguel, King of Portugal (1828—1834).

- Pedro, Duke of Braganza.
- Louis Philippe, Duke of Oporto.
- John, Duke of Beja.
- Ferdinand.

stitution of 1822 was re-established, and remained in force, with some modifications (a chamber of peers, royal voto, &c.) until the year 1842, when an insurrection at Oporto compelled the government to restore Don Pedro's charter (of 1826). Another attempt, on the part of the Miguelites, produced a fresh civil war (1846, 1847), which was terminated through the interference of England.

## § 70. *Sweden.*

(417.) Gustavus IV. (in whose reign Finland was given up by Sweden to Russia) was compelled, by a bloodless revolution (in 1809), to abdicate in favor of his uncle, Charles XIII. (1809—1818.) A new constitution was published, declaring the throne hereditary in the male line: and, after the sudden death of the crown prince, an act was passed by the estates, nominating, as the king's successor, Marshal Bernadotte, Prince of Montecorvo, who had been favorably known during the period of his command in the north of Germany, and was also recommended by his family connection with Napoleon.[1] For the union of Norway with Sweden, with a constitution of its own, see p. 196.

### The House of Bernadotte since 1818.

(418.) Bernadotte, who had assumed the name of Charles (John) XIV. on his accession, fully justified the choice of the nation by the wisdom and firmness of his government, and the judicious reforms which he introduced into every branch of the administration. He was succeeded (in 1844) by his son, Oscar I.

## § 71. *Denmark.*

(419.) Denmark, which had been poorly indemnified

[1] Bernadotte had married a sister of Joseph Bonaparte's wife.

for the loss of Norway by receiving Lauenburg,[1] enjoyed a period of uninterrupted tranquillity from the year 1814 to the end of Frederick VIth's reign (1839), and was divided into four provinces: viz., the Danish Islands, Jutland, Schleswig, and Holstein with Lauenburg, each of which returned representatives of the National Council. Under his successor, Christian VIII. (1839—1848), a proposal was made by the Danish party, at the provincial diet of Roeskild (1844). to incorporate the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg with Denmark, and to introduce into those countries the principle of succession to the throne of the female line, which had existed in Denmark since 1660: whilst the German provinces, on the other hand, demanded a complete administrative and military separation from Denmark. A declaration on the part of the king of his intention to sanction the proposed alteration in the succession produced the greatest excitement in both duchies. In the year 1848, immediately after the accession of Frederick VII., a general assembly having been convoked for the purpose of framing a constitution for the whole Danish empire, the movement in Holstein commenced with the establishment of a provincial government, which was recognized by the assembly of the Schleswig-Holstein estates as well as by the German diet, and accepted a proposal for the admission of Schleswig into the German confederacy. At the suggestion of the diet, Prussia engaged to maintain the male succession in the

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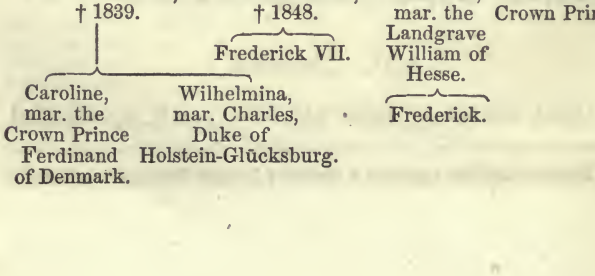
[1] Frederick V., † 1766.



German provinces, and the union of Schleswig with Holstein. The Prussian and other German troops having driven back the Danish troops into Jutland, Denmark made reprisals by blockading the ports of northern Germany. An armistice for seven months was at last arranged, and a provisional government (established with the consent of the King of Denmark on the one part, and the German central administration on the other), undertook the administration of the two duchies (1848) until a definite peace could be concluded.

## § 72. *The American States.*

(420.) 1. The United States of America have increased from the original thirteen to thirty, besides which there are several territories and one federal district (District of Columbia). They extend from the British possessions on the line of the great lakes on the north to the Gulf of Mexico and Mexico on the south, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific on the east and west, thus ranging through 26° of latitude and 58° of longitude. The frontier line has an extent of almost 10,000 miles, and a line drawn from N. E. to S. W., would measure 2,800 miles.

(421.) The names of the States are as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Maine, | Eastern, or New England States. |
| New Hampshire, | |
| Vermont, | |
| Massachusetts, | |
| Rhode Island, | |
| Connecticut, | |
| New-York, | Middle States. |
| New-Jersey, | |
| Pennsylvania, | |
| Delaware, | |
| Maryland, | |
| Virginia, | Southern States. |
| North Carolina, | |
| South Carolina, | |
| Georgia, | |
| Florida, | |
| Alabama, | |
| Mississippi, | |
| Louisiana, | |
| Texas, | |

| | |
|---|---|
| Ohio, | Western States. |
| Kentucky, | |
| Tennessee. | |
| Indiana, | |
| Illinois, | |
| Michigan, | |
| Missouri, | |
| Arkansas, | |
| Wisconsin, | |
| Iowa, | |

(422.) The territories are,

Minnesota, Missouri, Indian, Oregon, together with New Mexico and Upper California.

(423.) The United States have been increased (since 1783) partly by voluntary annexation and partly by purchase (Louisiana from France, 1803), or convention (Florida ceded by Spain in 1819), and now rank next to England as a maritime and commercial power. In the construction of steamboats and railways, they have advanced with a rapidity unknown to the inhabitants of the Old World, and in the general diffusion of knowledge, and in general prosperity, they are unequalled throughout the world; on the other hand, negro slavery, though abolished in the northern and western States, is still tenaciously adhered to by the southern States. After obtaining an uninterrupted communication with the Pacific (by the settlement of the Oregon question in 1843), and the consequent prospect of a direct intercourse with China and the Indian Archipelago, the United States, in a war with Mexico, added to its already vast extent of territory, Upper California and New Mexico, with several excellent harbors in the Pacific (1848).

(424.) A brief abstract of the history of the United States since the adoption of the Federal Constitution, is all that the limits of the present manual will admit. For fuller information the student will of course consult the larger and standard histories of the United States.

(425.) George Washington entered upon the duties of President of the United States on the 30th April, 1789. Various and important questions arose and had to be settled, and the administration was encompassed with difficulties such as only the blessing of God upon the wise

and patriotic efforts of the Father of his Country could remove. Alexander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury, proposed a plan to Congress for maintaining the public credit; he recommended that the foreign and domestic debt (amounting to about $80,000,000) be assumed by the United States, which was accordingly done, and thereby a great impetus afforded to activity and enterprise. In 1791, after vigorous opposition, the first Bank of the United States was incorporated by act of Congress, with a capital of $10,000,000. The difficulties with the Indians on the northwestern frontier resulted, in the autumn of 1791, in the disastrous defeat of the entire force under General St. Clair. On the 4th March 1793, Washington entered upon the second term of the office to which he had been unanimously elected. John Adams was also again elected Vice-President. This year France declared war against England and Holland, and thereby created new and very vexatious difficulties for the government of Washington. The French Minister, M. Genet, presuming upon the enthusiastic feelings entertained toward France for her aid in the Revolution, had the audacity to despise the proclamation of strict neutrality, issued by Washington, and undertook to fit out privateers, &c., in American ports. The President insisted upon his recall, and next year the successor of M. Genet assured the government that France entirely disapproved of Genet's conduct. In 1794, General Wayne defeated the Indians, and laid waste their country. A naval force began to be raised, and difficulties with England occurred, which however were amicably adjusted by the efforts of John Jay, the negotiator of the very important treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, with Great Britain, which was ratified by the Senate and signed by the President, August 14, 1795. Treaties were also made, this year, with Spain, with Algiers, and with the Indians in the west. Washington signified his determination to retire from public life at the close of his presidential term, and took occasion to issue his *Farewell Address* to his countrymen, an address which ought to be studied by every American for its profound wisdom, and cherished as the inestimable legacy of the Father of his Country. Excepting the difficulties

with France, arising out of the pique and disappointment at the refusal of America to be involved in European wars and politics, and the unjustifiable measures adopted by the French, the country was in a very prosperous condition at the close of Washington's administration; not only was public and private credit restored, and ample provision made for the payment of the public debt, but trade had gone on steadily and rapidly increasing; the exports were trebled, the imports about the same, and the revenue from imports exceeded the most sanguine calculations. The population had increased from three and a half to five millions, and agriculture and industrial arts generally were in a flourishing state.

(426.) On the 4th March, 1797, John Adams entered upon the office of President of the United States. The difficulties with France, which had been attempted to be settled by negotiation, had kept on increasing; constant spoliations upon American commerce were made, and war seemed to be the inevitable result. Congress took vigorous measures for the defence of the country, and Washington was appointed Commander-in-Chief. Several engagements at sea took place; but after the overthrow of the French Directory, and the assumption of the government by Bonaparte, negotiations were successful, and peace was concluded (Sept. 30th, 1800). A few weeks before this (Dec. 14th, 1799), George Washington died, after a short illness; every testimonial of affection and reverence was exhibited by the people, and the whole nation to a man was plunged in profound grief. His memory can never die; his example never lose its influence, while patriotism shall exist among his countrymen, while freedom shall be loved, and purity and goodness be reverenced among men. During Mr. Adams's administration, the lines of party began to be drawn more definitely than had been the case while Washington was at the head of affairs. Several of the President's measures (alien and sedition laws) excited strong opposition, and at the following election he was defeated, and the democratic candidates obtained the suffrage of the majority.

(427.) On the 4th March, 1801, Thomas Jefferson became President of the United States, and Aaron

Burr, Vice-President. Louisiana was purchased from France for $15,000,000, and possession taken in Dec., 1803. Mr. Jefferson was re-elected, and entered upon a second term of office (March 4th, 1805), George Clinton, of New-York, being Vice-President. During this year, the war with Tripoli, which had been signalized by many gallant exploits of our navy, was brought to a close. Aaron Burr, in 1806, was detected in designs of a treasonable character, which had for their object the founding a new empire, west of the Alleghany range, with New Orleans as the capital. He was seized and brought to trial, but was discharged for want of evidence to convict him; nevertheless, the general sentiment of the people was, that he was guilty, and he was ever after regarded with feelings of contempt and indignation, more especially as General Hamilton had fallen by his hand in a duel, July, 1804. The wars in Europe, consequent upon the ambition of Napoleon, led to various measures operating very injuriously upon the commerce of the United States, who maintained a strict neutrality between the belligerent powers. In 1806, England declared the blockade of all the ports and rivers from the Elbe to Brest, and a number of American vessels, trading to that coast, were captured and condemned. Bonaparte retaliated by the famous *Berlin decree*, which declared all the British islands in a state of blockade. These and similar measures (orders in council, Milan decree, 1808) were seriously hurtful to American trade and commerce, and the country began to demand redress for these outrages, particularly as the independence of the nation had been insulted by an unprovoked attack upon the frigate Chesapeake, and the taking away by force from her some of the crew, on the ground of their being British subjects. In December, 1808, Congress decreed an embargo, which, not having obtained from France and England an acknowledgment of American rights, was repealed (March 1st, 1809), and a law was passed prohibiting all trade and intercourse with those countries.

(428.) James Madison succeeded Mr. Jefferson (March 4th, 1809). The difficulties with France and England still continuing, and the commerce of the country being

sadly crippled and injured (between 1803 and 1811, it is stated 900 vessels had been captured), other measures were deemed advisable. Bonaparte having revoked the hostile decrees, intercourse with France was resumed (Nov. 1810); but England, persevering in her course of hostility (in June, 1812), *war was declared* against Great Britain. A considerable portion of the country (mostly those of the federal party) was opposed to the war, and denounced it as impolitic and wrong. It lasted for three years; on land the operations of the army were frequently unsuccessful; but at sea, the navy gained imperishable glory, and brought this arm of the service into general favor. The particulars of the war must be sought for in larger histories. A treaty of peace was concluded at Ghent, in Dec., 1814, and ratified by the President and Senate (Feb., 1815). A *Bank of the United States* was chartered, with a capital of $35,000,000, early in 1816, the charter to continue in force twenty years.

(429.) Mr. Madison was succeeded by James Monroe (March 4th, 1817). The state of the country, on Mr. Monroe's accession, was by no means prosperous,—commerce had not yet revived, and the manufacturing interests of the community were greatly depressed by the influx of foreign merchandise. In 1818, in a war with the Seminoles, Gen. Jackson entirely subdued the Indian territory. In 1819, Spain ceded to the United States East and West Florida, and the adjacent islands. The admission of Missouri into the Union (1821) aroused the whole country on the subject of slavery; a compromise was finally effected, and the question has since been comparatively at rest. Mr. Monroe was re-elected in 1821, and in 1824, Lafayette revisited the United States, and received everywhere that attention and regard which he so deservedly merited. At the next election for President no one of the four candidates received a majority of the electoral votes. The choice therefore devolved upon the House of Representatives.

(430.) John Quincy Adams was inaugurated President of the United States, March 4th, 1825. A controversy with Georgia, respecting certain lands held by the Cherokees and Creeks in that State, at one time threat-

ened serious difficulties, but was finally settled in a satisfactory manner. Ex-Presidents Adams and Jefferson died July 4th, 1826. As the time for a new election approached, everywhere party spirit began to develop itself, with unusual virulency, and Mr. Adams was defeated, and General Jackson elected by a large majority.

(431.) Andrew Jackson entered upon the duties of his office, March 4th, 1829. With this administration began the system of proscription for political opinions, and removals from office were made to a very large extent. In 1832, a bill for the re-charter of the Bank of the United States passed both Houses, but was vetoed by the President. He also opposed internal improvements by appropriations of the public money. South Carolina having arrayed herself against the protective tariff measures passed by Congress, civil war was at one time feared, but a compromise was effected, and the danger avoided—the firmness of the Executive was deserving of all praise. In 1833, General Jackson removed the deposits of public money in the Bank of the United States, and placed them in several of the State banks; this measure was severely censured by the Senate (June 9th, 1834). The French indemnity appropriations not having been met, the President recommended reprisals upon French commerce; a war was feared for a time, but happily the matter was settled, by the French government the next year making provision to fulfil its stipulations.

(432.) Martin Van Buren succeeded General Jackson (March 4th, 1837), and carried out the same line of policy as his predecessor. At the commencement of his administration the whole country was involved in unprecedented and terrible mercantile distress. In the city of New-York alone, during the months of March and April, failures took place to the astonishing amount of nearly $100,000,000; all confidence seemed to have taken flight, and credit was at an end, and the banks almost everywhere suspended specie payments. An extra session of Congress was called, and various measures adopted for public relief. The war in Florida, with the Seminoles, was still carried on, during this administration, with no very satisfactory results. In 1840, the independent tre-

sury bill, the great financial measure of this administration, was passed and became a law. The election, which took place this year, was the most exciting ever known, and both parties exerted themselves to the utmost—Mr. Van Buren was defeated.

(433.) William Henry Harrison was inaugurated President, March 4th, 1841. Just one month after this he died, and the Vice-President, according to the provisions of the constitution, succeeded him in his high office.

(434.) John Tyler's administration was the first during which a man not elected for the office was intrusted with its high powers and responsibilities. The sub-treasury bill was repealed, and a general bankrupt law passed in 1841. The north-eastern boundary treaty was concluded at Washington, September, 1842. Disturbances occurred in Rhode Island, which threatened bloodshed, but happily they were repressed without this dread alternative, and law and order prevailed. In 1844, through the influence of the President, Texas was annexed to the United States.

(435.) James K. Polk became President, March 4th, 1845. A treaty with China was effected this year. In 1846, war with Mexico broke out. June 18th, 1846, the *Oregon treaty* signed at London. July 6th, Commodore Sloat took possession of California. Treaty of peace with Mexico signed at Guadaloupe Hidalgo, Feb. 22d, 1848. Emigration from Europe this year (1848) to the United States, 300,000.

(436.) Zachary Taylor was inaugurated President, March 4th, 1849. He died July 9th, 1850, and was succeeded by Millard Fillmore, who now (1851) fills the office of President of the United States.

(437.) 2. Hayti, or St. Domingo, became an empire after the expulsion of the French in 1803, and finally (in 1820) a republic, into which the Spanish portion of the island was incorporated in 1822. Souloque elected President, March 2d; proclaimed Emperor of Hayti, August 24th, 1849.

(438.) 3. What was formerly Spanish America consisted of four vice-royalties: viz., Mexico or New Spain,

New Granada or Fé de Bogota, Peru, and Buenos Ayres or Rio de la Plata; and five general captainates: viz., Guatimala, Venezuela, Chili, Havana or Cuba, and Porto-Rico. The people of Spanish America having refused to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte as King of Spain, or receive the viceroy sent out by the usurping government, expected, not unreasonably, that at the restoration the Cortes, in framing a constitution, would place the faithful inhabitants of their colonies on the same footing as those of the mother country. This expectation having been miserably disappointed, the provinces of the American continent declared themselves independent, and established republican governments. The resistance of Ferdinand VII. to these revolutionary proceedings occasioned the Great American War of Liberation against Spain (1811—1824), which was carried on with almost uniform success on the side of the Americans, especially those under the command of Simon Bolivar († 1830), and ended in the establishment of six (afterwards nine) republics in South America.

a. *Paraguay*, a theocratic state, founded by the Jesuits in the seventeenth century, declared itself independent in 1811, and chose as its dictator an advocate named Dr. Francia († 1840), who governed with almost absolute authority. The republic now has a president.

b. *La Plata*, or the Argentine Republic (1816).

c. *Chili* (1818).

d. *Colombia* (1818), formed by the union of Venezuela (or Caraccas) and New Granada, under the President Bolivar. This republic (to which Quito was annexed in 1821) was divided in 1831 into three confederate states: viz., *Venezuela*, *New Granada*, and *Ecuador*.

e. *Peru* (1824), where the Spaniards maintained their authority longer than in any other state, was at length liberated by the aid of Bolivar; and in the year 1825 was divided into two republics; the six provinces which compose Upper Peru having separated themselves from the others, and established an independent republic under the name of *Bolivia*.

f. *Uruguay* (1828), which formerly belonged to the Spanish vice-royalty of Rio de la Plata, was taken pos-

session of by Brazil in 1817, but declared independent, through the intervention of England, in 1839. The interference of the Argentine republic in disputes respecting the election of a president in Uruguay occasioned a war (1839) between the two states, which, notwithstanding the mediation of England, is not yet terminated.

g. In *Mexico* the first insurrectionary movements were suppressed by the Spaniards, but the revolution in the mother-country encouraged the Mexicans to make a fresh attempt. The throne of Mexico, as an independent empire, was at first offered to Ferdinand VII. for himself or one of the younger princes; and, on his refusal, Colonel Augustin Iturbide was proclaimed hereditary emperor; but he had scarcely reigned a year, when the opposition party, headed by General Santa Anna, compelled him to abdicate. After a succession of party struggles, and the expulsion of all the ancient Spanish families, a Mexican Union was established (consisting of nineteen states), which has ever since been distracted by the disputes of the two parties respecting the election of a president. Texas separated itself from the Mexican Union in 1836, and was annexed to the United States in 1844.

(439.) War with the United States.—The United States of America, between which country and Mexico friendly relations had been for some time suspended in consequence of various acts of aggression on the part of the Mexican government, had not only recognized the independence of Texas, but incorporated that state into their union. Hostilities commenced in consequence of a dispute between the two countries respecting the boundary-line of Texas, and after the capture of the Mexican capital peace was concluded on terms exceedingly favorable to the Americans, the Rio Grande del Nord being fixed as the boundary of Texas, and Upper California and New Mexico given up to the United States.

h. *The five provinces of central America* (Guatimala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costarico,) after remaining faithful to the mother-country longer than any of the other provinces, at length declared themselves independent (in 1823), and established the republic of the United States of Central America. Guatimala separated itself from the union in 1847.

(440.) 4. In *Brazil* (the only monarchy of the New World) a struggle between monarchy and democracy commenced soon after its separation from Portugal. In the year 1831, in consequence of a revolution occasioned by disputes between the government and the chambers, Don Pedro I. abdicated in favor of his son, Don Pedro II., who attained his majority in 1840. Notwithstanding, however, this arrangement, several of the provinces continued to be the scene of revolutionary movements.

## § 73. *Religion, Arts, Sciences, &c., during the Third Period.*

### I. RELIGION.

(441.) The exertions of both Protestants and Romanists for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign countries are still continued. The Church of England has now divided her immense colonial possessions into the following dioceses:—

| *Diocese.* | *Colony.* |
|---|---|
| Nova Scotia | Nova Scotia. |
| | Cape Breton. |
| | Prince Edward's Island. |
| Fredericton | New Brunswick. |
| Quebec | Canada East. |
| Toronto | Canada West. |
| Newfoundland | Newfoundland. |
| | Bermudas. |
| Jamaica | Jamaica. |
| | Bahamas. |
| Barbados. | |
| Antigua. | |
| Guiana, | |
| Calcutta | Bengal. |
| Madras | Madras. |
| Bombay | Bombay. |
| Colombo | Ceylon. |
| Capetown | Cape of Good Hope. |
| | St. Helena. |
| Sydney | New South Wales. |
| Newcastle | |
| Melbourne | |
| Adelaide | South Australia. |
| | Western Australia. |
| New Zealand | New Zealand. |
| Tasmania | Van Diemen's Land. |
| | Seychelles. |
| Hong Kong,[1] | |

[1] To this number two more are just about to be added: 1850.

(442.) The Church in these dioceses is mainly supported by the *Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts* (incorporated in 1701), assisted by the *Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge*. The *Church Missionary Society* (founded about a century later) is now in the annual receipt of a vast income (above 100,000*l*.), and does not confine its operations to the English colonies.

(443.) The Roman Catholic missions, which have spread over the countries of the Levant, India, China, America, and Australia, are under the direction of the Propaganda at Rome, and are supported in a great measure by religious associations in France. There are also several Protestant missionary societies (in London, Holland, Boston, New-York, Bâsle, Berlin, and Berne) which are assisted in their labors by the Bible Societies: their operations are very extensive.

(444.) The *Roman Catholic* ecclesiastical constitution was established afresh after the fall of Napoleon, by means of concordats concluded by the several temporal sovereigns with the pope. The order of Jesuits, which had been reestablished by Pius VII., and expelled from Russia about the same time, was admitted, with other monastic orders, into several Roman Catholic countries, but subsequently suppressed in Portugal, Spain, and France. A union of the *Lutheran* and *Reformed* (i. e. *Calvinistic*) Communions, under the name of the *Evangelical Church*, was effected in Prussia in 1817, and adopted at a later period in other German states. In Russia, the inhabitants of the western provinces were required to conform to the established religion (in 1836), and the Roman Catholic and United Greek worship were suppressed by force.

## II. *Constitutional History of the Period.*

(445.) In no period of modern history have so many changes of constitution occurred (in Italy, France, Spain, and Portugal,) as in the present century, both during and since the revolutions. In some states, as Austria, Sardinia (in part), Sweden, the two Mecklenburgs, and some of the smaller German states, the old mediæval constitutions

(of *estates*) have been retained; whilst in others, such as France, the Netherlands, Poland (until 1831), Norway, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, most of the German states, Lucca, Greece, the states of America (after the example of the United States of America), a *representative* system has been established. Prussia and Denmark have provincial councils. Russia, the rest of the Italian states, and three of the smaller German states (Oldenburg, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, and Hesse-Homburg), were governed as before, without constitutions. The most remarkable effects of the French revolution, not only in France, but to a certain extent in other countries, were:—a. In the *financial administration.* The establishment of a system of equal taxation, the right of self-taxation by the estates (budgets, civil lists), and in the constitutional states the enormous increase of their national debts. b. In the *administration of justice.* Equality of all before the law, publicity of courts of justice, adoption by several German states of the Code Napoleon, which, however, was abolished after the Restoration by all of them except Rhenish Prussia, Rhenish Hesse, and Rhenish Bavaria. c. In *military affairs.* The establishment (in the continental states) of national guards, communal guards, and militias, (Landwehren), together with the standing armies, compulsory service of all citizens, instead of the old system of recruiting, increase in the number of the troops and artillery, improvements in strategy, military tactics, and the art of fortification.

### III. *Science, Literature, and Art.*

(446.) In the German speculative *philosophy* (which in modern times has extended its influence to all other sciences), after the publication of Immanuel Kant's Critique on the Intellect (Vernunft-Critic, 1804), commenced a revolution, which was completed by J. G. Fichte († 1814). To both these systems Schelling opposed his natural philosophy, on which Hegel († 1831) founded an absolute idealism. In England, Coleridge; in France, Cousin.

(447.) b. *Philology* also flourished during this period, especially in Germany, where Heyne († 1812), F. A.

Wolf († 1824), G. Hermann, Buttmann († 1829), Bekker, Böckh, Creuzer, J. H. Voss († 1826), R. O. Müller († 1840), and several others distinguished themselves as critical scholars. In England, Porson, Elmsley, Dobree, Blomfield, Gaisford, Monk, Clinton, Thirlwall, Grote; of whom all but the three first are still alive. The study of general grammar was pursued by W. Von Humboldt († 1835); that of Oriental literature by Gesenius, Von Hammer, Rödiger, Ewald, the French writer Sylvester de Sacy, the English Professor Lee, and others. Sanscrit by Bopp, A. W. Von Schlegel († 1845), Wilson, Mill; ancient German literature by the two Barons Von Grimm, Graff († 1841), Lachmann, &c.

(448.) Excellent German translations of the best foreign authors were published by J. H. Voss, Schleiermacher († 1834) who was equally eminent as a philologist and theologian, A. W. Von Schlegel, Gries, Kannegiesser, Rückert, Streckfuss, Diez, and others. The principal English translation, and that a nearly perfect one, is Carey's 'Dante.' Very important effects resulted from the profound study of philology, biblical exegesis (which has been, however, in Germany, too generally conducted in a *rationalistic* spirit), and jurisprudence; that of jurisprudence has been cultivated with great success by Savigny and others.

(449.) c. *Historical investigations* were pursued with unwearied industry and great acuteness by Niebuhr († 1831), Heeren († 1842), Fr. Von Raumer, Schlosser, Wilken (1840), Von Hammer, Hüllmann, Leo, Eichhorn († 1827), Pfister († 1835), Ranke, Wachsmuth, K. A. Menzel, Voigt, Luden, Dahlmann, Aschbach, Lappenberg, Thirlwall, Grote, Arnold, Prescott, &c. French historical literature was cultivated by Guizot, Thierry, Sismondi, Michaud, Lacretelle, Thiers, Capefigue; English history by Lingard (a Roman Catholic), Hallam, Lord Mahon, Turner, Arnold, Macaulay; American by Grahame, Bancroft, Sparks, Hildreth, &c.; Italian by Botta († 1802); Swedish by Geijer and Lundblad; Polish by Lelewel; and Russian by Karamsin († 1826).

(450.) d. *Geography* was elevated to the rank of a distinct science by C. Ritter, and its sphere enlarged by

the French expedition into Egypt, and the discoveries of several travellers.

(451.) The most important travels were those of Mungo Park († 1811), Clapperton († 1827), the brothers Lander on the Niger, A. Von Humboldt in the equinoctial countries of America, and into Siberia, Burckhardt († 1817) in Arabia and Nubia, Gau in Nubia and Abyssinia, de Laborde in Arabia and Syria, Prince Max of Neuwied, in Brazil and to the sources of the Missouri. To these we must add the circumnavigations of the globe by Krusenstern and Kotzebue; the expeditions to the North Pole of Captains Parry and Ross; and the American South Sea Exploring Expedition, and Captain Lynch's Dead Sea Expedition.

(452.) e. *Natural science* was greatly promoted by these travels, especially those of A. Von Humboldt and the Prince of Neuwied, by the discovery of galvanism (by Galvini, an Italian), and of the four smaller planets, and by the annual meetings of German and Swiss, and at a later period of English, French, and Italian naturalists. The most distinguished naturalists of modern times were —the Zoologist Cuvier († 1832), Dr. Owen, the chemist Berzelius, Sir Humphrey Davy, Faraday, the botanists A. L. de Jussieu and Decandolle, and the astronomer Laplace († 1827), Herschell, Airy, Adams. The most remarkable discoveries in *medicine* were Gall's († 1822) craniology, and Hahnemann's homœopathic system. Invention of galvano-plastic by Jacobi, of Dorpat.

(453.) f. *Poetry.*—In Germany, Schiller († 1805), and Goethe († 1832), during their ten years' residence together at Weimar (1795—1805). At the same time there arose, in opposition to the sentimentality of lyric poetry (revived by Matthison, Salis, and Tiedge), and the dramas of real life of Iffland († 1814), and Kotzebue († 1819), a romantic school, founded by the brothers Schlegel (Aug. William, † 1845, and Frederick, † 1829), and Tieck, who adopted as their model the romantic poetry of the middle ages, and distinguished themselves by their critical productions no less than by their poetical works and translations. The patriotic wars in which Germany was engaged inspired Körner († 1813), Von Schenk-

endorf († 1817), Arndt and Rückert (Freimand Reimar), whose songs of war and victory were suggested by the events of those stirring times. Patriotic songs were also written by W. Müller († 1827), to celebrate the Greek revolution. Since that time lyric poetry has been especially employed to commemorate the events of the day, by Uhland, Count Platen († 1835), Chamicso († 1838), Zedlitz, and Lenau; and during the last ten years has assumed a polemical character, in the disgraceful writings of Heine, Anastasius Grün, Hoffman of Fallersleben, Freiligrath, K. Beck, and Herwegh. In epic poetry, German literature has been much less fruitful than in lyric. Epic poems of considerable length have been attempted by E. Schulze († 1817), Archbishop Pyrker, and Lenau. In ballads and romances, the Swabian poetical school of Uhland, G. Schwab, and Kerner, is the most distinguished. Dramatic poetry, which had attained its highest degree of excellence in the days of Schiller, was cultivated with different success by his successors, H. Von Kleist († 1811), Z. Werner († 1823), Müllner († 1828), Grabbe († 1836), Immermann († 1840), Raupach, Zedlitz, and Gutzkow. Romances and novels were written by Jean Paul Frederick Richter († 1825), L. Tieck, Immermann, and a crowd of authors and authoresses. Several translations of foreign romances were also published.

(454.) In *France*, a host of poets, following the example of Chateaubriand, threw off the trammels imposed on poetry by the academy, and formed a "modern romantic school," in opposition to the old classical school, as it was called. Among these the most celebrated is Victor Hugo. A. de Lamartine has distinguished himself as a religious lyric poet, and Beranger as a writer of popular songs. An attempt to unite the two schools was made by the lyric and dramatic poet Cas. Delavigne. Among the dramatic poets, the most prolific are Scribe and Alex. Dumas. Of the numerous writers of romance, Victor Hugo, Chateaubriand, Madame de Stael († 1817), Janin, Nodier, Balzac, Madame Dudevant (George Sand), Paul de Kock, and Eugene Sue, enjoy the highest reputation, though the works of the last three are a disgrace to the nation that produces and tolerates such writings.

(455.) In *England*, Lord Byron († at Missolonghi, in 1824) surpassed all his contemporaries in liveliness of imagination and ardent poetic feeling. Wordsworth, whose loss we are now deploring (1850), is a far sublimer, as well as a far purer poet, than Lord Byron. Coleridge was equal, if not in some respects superior, in poetic genius; but executed comparatively little. Other poets (omitted by Prof. Putz) are Walter Scott, Southey, Tennyson, Keble, Mrs. Hemans. The historical romances of Sir Walter Scott are unrivalled for the fidelity and brilliancy of their delineations. English domestic romance has been revived by Sir E. L. Bulwer, and Charles Dickens. In *America*, Bryant, Longfellow, Halleck, Dana, Willis, Mrs. Sigourney, and others have done much for true poetry. Among the modern poets of *Italy*, the most renowned. as lyric and tragic writers, are Manzoni and Silvio Pelico. In *Sweden*, Bishop Tegnér distinguished himself as an epic, and in *Russia*, Puschkin († 1837), as a lyric poet. The *American* writers, Cooper and Washington Irving, have also acquired a European reputation.

(456.) g. *Oratory.*—The sphere of political eloquence, which before the revolution was limited to England, has been extended since the introduction of the representative system to France and some of the German states. The most distinguished orators of modern times are, those of England, viz., the younger Pitt († 1806), Fox († 1806), Brougham, O'Connell, Sir Robert Peel, &c.; next to them rank the orators of France, viz., Manuel (1823), Foy († 1824), Benj. Constant († 1830), Lamarque († 1832), Royer Collard, Casimir Périer († 1832), Chateaubriand, Guizot, Dupin, Odillon Barrot, Thiers, Lamartine, &c.; in America, Calhoun, Clay, Webster, &c.

(457.) h. In the *fine arts*, great advances were made by France during the reign of Napoleon, and by Germany and Belgium after the restoration of peace. The great *architectural* works with which Paris, Berlin (by Schinkel), and Munich (by Klenzi), have been adorned, indicate the revival of a study of the antique, which has been greatly promoted by the recent examination and measurement of the monuments of Grecian art, and the introduction into

the museums of Europe of some of the most valuable treasures of Grecian sculpture (the Elgin marbles, &c.). Others have endeavored to revive the Gothic style of the middle ages. In *sculpture*, the most successful imitators of classical models have been the Italian, Canova († 1822), and (in a totally different style) the Dane Thorwaldsen, († 1841) G. Schadow, Rauch, Chr. Tieck, Schwanthaler, David, a Frenchman, Chantrey and Gibson, Englishmen, Powers and Greenough, Americans.

(458.) *Painting.*—The greatest activity has been manifested in all the branches of this art. In England, Turner, Sir T. Lawrence, and others. In Germany, we have the Munich school, with P. Von Cornelius (since resident at Berlin) at its head, and that of Dusseldorf, under W. Schadow. In France, Horace Vernet, P. Delaroche, &c., are distinguished as historical painters. Their great aim has been to give individuality to their subjects, in contradistinction to the classical style of J. L. David († 1825), and his pupil Gérard († 1837). In Belgium, Wappers and de Keyser are celebrated as historical painters, and Verboekhoven as a painter of animals. The study of the fine arts was promoted by the establishment of museums (Musée Napoléon in the Louvre, museums at Berlin and Versailles), and the erection of magnificent buildings adorned with fresco painting, by command of Lewis I., at Munich. A taste for art was also diffused far and wide by the establishment, in almost every great European city, of art-unions. Lithography was invented by Sennefelder, of Munich (1796); steel-engraving by Heath, in England; and the Daguerreotype in France, by Daguerre (1839); *Photogenic* drawing by H. F. Talbot, in England, at the same time. A great improvement in the art of engraving on wood was also effected in Holland.

(459.) i. In *Music*, Germany produced the most illustrious masters. W. A. Mozart († 1791), Jos. Haydn († 1809), Ludw. Von Beethoven († 1827), and a host of other composers, such as C. M. Von Weber († 1826), Spohr, Bernard Klein († 1832), Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy († 1848), Ferd. Ries († 1838), Fesca († 1826), A. Romberg († 1821), Marschner, Schneider, Meyerbeer, &c.

In France, Cherubini, Méhul († 1817), Boyldieu († 1834), and Auber. In Italy, Rossini and Bellini, both celebrated as composers of operas. Academies of singing are established in Germany, and conservatories of music in Paris and Prague. Great musical festivals are held in Germany and England, and societies are established in Holland for the advancement of musical science. The taste for operatic representations has also contributed in no small degree to the improvement of musical composition.

IV. *Trade, Manufacturing Industry, Agriculture.*

(460.) The colonial trade of the French, Dutch, and Spaniards, was transferred, during the war, to England or some neutral nation, such as the United States, which began to rival Great Britain as a maritime power. England indemnified herself for the loss of her trade with the European continent, consequent on the introduction of Napoleon's continental system, by extending her dominion in India, and drawing more closely the bands of her commercial intercourse with Brazil, and the revolted Spanish colonies of South America. A brisk trade was also carried on with the Spanish peninsula, during the period of British ascendency in Spain and Portugal. The peace of Paris restored to France and Holland their ancient colonies, but not their former commercial prosperity. *Manufacturing industry* in France, the Netherlands, Germany, and Russia, was encouraged by the exclusion of English wares under the continental system, and subsequently by enormous import duties: but, on the other hand, *agriculture* in the north-east of Europe and Germany was almost ruined by the English corn-laws. The circulation of bills of exchange and promissory notes, and the trade in government securities, were carried on with unprecedented spirit. The resolution of the Congress of Vienna for the abolition of slavery was gradually carried into execution. The interests of commerce were promoted by—a. greater facilities of communication by means of canals, steamers (Fulton, on the Hudson river, first succeeded in applying steam to the propelling of vessels, 1807); railways (first introduced as of great importance, in England,

1826–30; in the United States, 1827–35); telegraphs (invented by Chappe, a Frenchman, in 1793; the *electric telegraph* by Professor Morse, 1832, patented 1837, first practically used, 1844; Cooke and Wheatstone's patent in England, 1840; b. commercial leagues; c. the free navigation of the German rivers, and establishment of the great German commercial league (Zollverein). England, on the other hand, has adopted the opposite principle, and abolished or greatly lessened all restrictive duties, Abolition of the Corn Laws by Sir Robert Peel.

# CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

## FIRST PERIOD.

A.D.

1492—1648. From the discovery of America to the peace of Westphalia.

1492. Discovery of America, by Christopher Columbus.
1493—1519. Maximilian I., Emperor of Germany.
1493—1496. Second voyage of Columbus. Discovery of the Antilles and Jamaica.
1495. Establishment of the Imperial Chamber.
Naples occupied for a short time by the French.
1498. Discovery of a passage by sea to the East Indies, by Vasco di Gama.
1498—1500. Third voyage of Columbus. Discovery of Trinidad and the Continent of South America. Francisco de Bobadilla.
1498. Conquest of Milan, by Louis XII.
1500. Cabral discovers Brazil.
1501. Conquest of Naples, by the French and Spaniards. The city remains in the occupation of the latter.
1502—1504. Fourth voyage of Columbus.
1566. Death of Columbus.
1568, 1509. War of the league of Cambray against Venice.
1509—1515. Alfonso Albuquerque, Portuguese Viceroy in the East Indies.
1509—1547. Henry VIII., King of England.
1511. Holy league for the expulsion of the French from Italy.
1512. Germany divided into ten circles.
1515—1547. Francis I., King of France.
1515. Francis I. regains Milan by the victory of Marignano.
1516—1556. Charles I., King of Spain.
1517. Beginning of the Reformation. Luther's ninety-five theses.
1518. Diet of Augsburg. Luther appears before Cardinal Caietan.
1519. Interregnum in Germany, after the death of Maximilian.
Cortez conquers Mexico.
1519—1556. Charles V., Emperor of Germany.

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1520. Magellan discovers a passage into the South Sea.
Luther burns the Pope's bull. Massacre of Stockholm.
1520—1556. Solyman II., Turkish Sultan.
1521. Luther appears before the diet of Worms, and is placed under the ban of the empire.
1521—1526. First war between Charles V. and Francis I.
1523. Gustavus Vasa separates Sweden from the Union of Calmar.
1525. Peasants' war in Germany. They are defeated at Frankenhausen.

*Prussia, a temporal Duchy.*

1525. Francis I. taken prisoner in the battle of Pavia.
1526. Convention of Madrid.
1526—1532. War of Charles V. with the Turks.
Battle of Mohacz.
1527—1529. Second war between Charles V. and Francis I. Rome taken and plundered.
1529. Ladies' peace concluded at Cambray.
Siege of Vienna by the Turks.
Diet of Spiers (Protestants).
1530. Diet of Augsburg. Confession of Ausgburg.
Charles V. gives Malta, Gozzo, and Tripoli, to the Knights of St. John. Last coronation of an Emperor by the Pope.
1531. Schmalkaldian league.
Zwingli falls in the battle of Kappel.
1532. The Turks advance a second time against Vienna.
Religious peace at Nurnberg.
1535. Sect of the Anabaptists suppressed at Munster.
Successful expedition of Charles V. against Tunis.
1536—1538. Third war between Charles V. and Francis I.
1538. An armistice concluded at Nice.
1540. Society of Jesuits founded by Ignatius Loyola.
1541. Unsuccessful campaign of Charles V. against Algiers.
1542—1568. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland.
1542—1544. Fourth war between Charles V. and Francis I.
The Duke of Cleves subdued.
1544. Peace of Cressy.
1545—1563. Council of Trent.
1546. Death of Martin Luther.
Schmalkaldian war between the Emperor Charles V. and the Schmalkaldian league.
1547. The Elector of Saxony defeated at Mühlberg. The electoral dignity transferred from the Ernestine to the Albertine line.
Philip of Hesse taken prisoner at Halle.
1552. Maurice attacks the Emperor at Innsbruck.
Convention of Passau.

A. D.

1552—1556. War of Charles V. with Henry II. of France. The French lose Metz, Toul, and Verdun.
1555. Religious peace of Augsburg. Reservatum ecclesiasticum.
1555. Charles V. gives up Milan, Naples, and the Netherlands, to his son.
1556. Abdication of Charles V.
1556—1598. Philip II., King of Spain.
1556—1564. Ferdinand I., Emperor of Germany.
1558—1603. Elizabeth, Queen of England.
1559. Long war between Spain and France, terminated by the peace of Château-Cambresis.
1559—1567. Margaret of Parma, vice-sovereign of the Netherlands.
1560—1598. Religious wars in France.
1564—1576. Maximilian II., Emperor of Germany.
1566. The Turks invade Hungary. Solyman II. dies before Sigeth.
1567—1573. The Duke of Alva Governor in the Netherlands. Execution of Egmont, Hoorn, &c. Massacre.
1571. Don Juan, of Austria, defeats the Turks at Lepanto.
1572. Poland an electoral Kingdom.
Massacre of St. Bartholomew's eve.
William of Orange nominated royal Stattholder of the Netherlandish provinces.
1573—1576. Zuniga y Requesens, Stattholder in the Netherlands.
1576—1578. Don Juan d'Austria, Stattholder.
1578—1592. Alexander Farnese, of Parma, Stattholder of the Netherlands.
1579. The seven northern provinces of the Netherlands renounce their allegiance to the Spanish crown in the Union of Utrecht.
1581—1646. Portugal under the dominion of Spain.
1583. The Gregorian Calendar.
1584. William of Orange assassinated. He is succeeded by his son Maurice.
1587. Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.
1588. Destruction of the Invincible Armada.

### 1589—1792. The house of Bourbon in France.

1589—1610. Henry IV., King of France. Sully.
1598. Edict of Nantes.
Extinction of the house of Ruric, in Russia.
1600. English East India Company.
1602. Dutch East India Company.

### 1603—1649. The house of Stuart in Great Britain and Ireland.

1605. Discovery of the Gunpowder Plot.
1608. Union of the Protestant Princes of Germany.

A. D.

1609. Letter of Majesty for the Bohemian and Silesian Protestants. Armistice between Spain and the United Netherlands. Romanist league.
1610. Henry IV. assassinated by Ravaillac.
1610—1643. Louis XIII. Mary de Medici Regent.
1611—1632. Gustavus (II.) Adolphus, King of Sweden.
1612—1619. MATTHIAS, EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

1613—1762. THE HOUSE OF ROMANOW, IN RUSSIA.
1618. *Prussia united to Brandenburg.*

1618. Disturbances in Prague on account of the destruction of the Letter of Majesty.
1618—1648. THIRTY YEARS' WAR IN GERMANY.
1618—1623. BOHEMIAN-PALATINE PERIOD OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.
1619—1637. Ferdinand II., Emperor of Germany.
1619. The Protestant estates of Bohemia choose the Elector Palatine, Frederick V., to be their King.
1620. Frederick defeated on the White Mountain. Bohemia subdued.
1623. The electorate of the Palatinate (conquered by Tilly), conferred on Maximilian of Bavaria.
1624—1642. RICHELIEU, Prime Minister in France.
1625—1629. DANISH PERIOD of the thirty years' war.
1626. Wallenstein defeats Count Mansfield at the Bridge of Dessau. Christian IV. defeated by Tilly at Lutter on the Barenberg.
1627. Conquest of Lower Saxony. Siege of Stralsund.
1629. Peace concluded with Denmark at Lubeck. RESTITUTION EDICT.
1630. Diet of Ratisbon. Wallenstein deprived of the command-in-chief. Dissolution of the Hansa.
1630—1634. SWEDISH PERIOD of the thirty years' war.
1630. Gustavus Adolphus lands in Pomerania, and advances as far as Brandenburg.
1631. Magdeburg stormed and sacked by Tilly. Gustavus Adolphus, with a reinforcement of Saxon troops, defeats Tilly near Leipzic, and advances into Western and Southern Germany.
Gustavus Adolphus and Wallenstein encamped near Nürnberg.
1632. Battle of LUTZEN. Death of Gustavus Adolphus and Pappenheim.
1632—1654. Christina, Queen of Sweden.
1634. Wallenstein murdered at Eger. The Austrians victorious at Nördlinger over Bernard of Weimar and Gustavus Horn. SWEDISH-FRENCH PERIOD of the thirty years' war.
1635. Peace concluded at Prague by the emperor and Saxony with the Protestant estates of central and Northern Germany.

A. D.

1636. Baner defeats the Saxons at Wittstock.

1637—1657. FERDINAND III., EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

1639. After the death of Bernard of Weimar, France regains possession of his conquests on the Rhine.

1640—1688. Frederick William the Great, Elector of Brandenburg.

1640. Separation of Portugal from Spain. The house of Braganza raised to the throne.

1642. Torstenson defeats the imperialists near Leipzic.

1643—1714. LOUIS XIV., KING OF FRANCE.

1643—1661. Mazarin Prime Minister in France during the minority of Louis XIV.

1645. Torstenston victorious at Zankau.

1646, 1647. Bavaria twice attacked by Wrangel and Turenne.

1647. Massaniello's insurrection at Naples.

1648. THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

War of the Fronde against the court of Louis XIII. and Mazarin.

1648—1789. FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1649. Execution of Charles I., King of England.

1649—1660. ENGLAND A REPUBLIC.

1653—1658. Oliver Cromwell, Protector of England.

1654—1751. The house of Zweibrucken reigns in Sweden.

1655—1660. Swedish-Polish war; in which the Great Elector takes part.

1656. Battle of Warsaw; the Swedes, assisted by the Great Elector, defeat the Poles.

1658—1705. LEOPOLD I., EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

1659. Peace of the Pyrenees, between France and Spain. Richard Cromwell resigns the Protectorate at the end of eight months. Charles II. brought back by General Monk.

1660—1668. England under the two last Stuarts, Charles II., and James II. Act of toleration (afterwards repealed). Test act. Habeas corpus.

1660. Sweden concludes a peace with Poland at Oliva, and with Denmark at Copenhagen.

Denmark becomes an absolute monarchy.

1661—1683. Colbert, French minister.

1663. The German diet becomes a permanent congress of deputies.

1666—1668. Louis XIVth's first war of spoliation against the Spanish Netherlands. Triple alliance.

1668. Peace concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle.

1672—1676. Louis XIVth's second war of spoliation against Holland. Dissolution of the triple alliance.

1675. Frederick William of Brandenburg defeats the Swedes at Fehrbellin.

1678. Peace of Nimeguen.

1679. The Great Elector is compelled to restore almost all his conquests to Sweden at the peace of S. Germain en Laye.

1680—1684. Louis XIVth's "re-unions."

A. D.

1683. The last siege of Vienna by the Turks.
1685. Revocation of the edict of Nantes. The Protestants quit France and establish themselves in other countries, especially in Brandenburg.
1687. Hungary a hereditary kingdom.
1688—1697. Louis XIVth's third war of spoliation. The Palatinate ravaged.
1688—1701. Frederick III. last Elector of Brandenburg.
1688. The English Revolution. Expulsion of the Stuarts.
1789—1702. The house of Orange in England. William III.
1690. Marshal Luxemburg defeats the Dutch at Fleurus.
1692. Hanover created a ninth electorate.
1697. Prince Eugene defeats the Turks at Gentha.
Saxony and Poland united. Peter the Great visits Holland and England.
Peace of Ryswick.
1697—1718. Charles XII., King of Sweden.
1699. Peace with the Turks at Carlowitz.
1700—1721. The Northern War.
1700. Denmark compelled to conclude a peace at Travendal in consequence of the landing of Charles XII. on the island of Zealand.
Charles XII. defeats the Russians at Narva. Extinction of the house of Hapsburg in Spain.
1701. The Elector of Brandenburg assumes the title of King of Prussia.
1701—1713. Frederick I., King of Prussia.
1701—1714. War of the Spanish succession.
1701. War in Italy. Attack on Milan.
1702—1714. Anne, Queen of England.
1703. Peter the Great lays the foundation of Petersburg.
1704. Stanislaus Lesczinsky, King of Poland.
Gibraltar taken by the English.
Eugene and Marlborough defeat the French at Höchstädt
1705—1711. Joseph I., Emperor of Germany.
1706. Augustus II. resigns the crown of Poland at the peace of Altranstadt.
Marlborough victorious at Ramillies, and Eugene, by the aid of the Russians, at Turin.
1707. Neuenburg [Neufchatel] and Valendis annexed to Prussia.
England and Scotland united, with one parliament.
1708. Eugene and Marlborough victorious at Oudenarde. Negotiations for peace.
1709. The two commanders victorious at Malplaquet. Charles XII., defeated at Pultowa, takes refuge in Turkey.
1709—1714. Residence of Charles XII. in Turkey. Conquest of the Swedish Baltic provinces by Peter. The Russian army surrounded by the Turks on the banks of the Pruth. Escape of Peter.
1711—1740. Charles VI., Emperor of Germany.

A. D.

1712. Fall of the Marlborough administration.
1713—1740. Frederick William I., King of Prussia.
1713. Peace of Utrecht. Philip V. recognized as King of Spain and her foreign possessions.
1714. Peace concluded at Rastadt and Baden. Charles VI. obtains the Spanish provinces in Europe. THE HOUSE OF HANOVER RAISED TO THE ENGLISH THRONE.
Return of Charles XII. from Turkey.
1714—1716. Three campaigns of Charles XII. against Norway.
1614—1718. War of the Turks against Venice and Austria.
1715—1774. Louis XV., King of France. Regency of the Duke of Orleans under the management of Dubois.
1716. Prince Eugene victorious at Peterwardein.
1718. Charles XII. slain at the siege of Friederichshall. Quadruple alliance for maintenance of the peace of Utrecht against Philip V. Sardinia given to Savoy in exchange for Sicily.
1721. Peace at Nystädt between Russia and Sweden.
1726—1743. Cardinal Fleury at the head of the administration in France.
1735. The kingdom of the two Sicilies again independent.
1733—1738. War of the Polish succession.
1736—1739. War of the Turks against Russia and Austria.
1737. Extinction of the house of Medici.
1738. Peace concluded at Vienna. Stanislaus resigns the crown of Poland, and receives Lorraine and Bar as an indemnification.
1739. Peace of Belgrade.
1740—1780. MARIA THERESA EMPRESS OF GERMANY in consequence of the pragmatic sanction.
1740—1788. Frederick (II.) the Great, King *in* (afterwards *of*) Prussia.
1740—1748. War of the Austrian succession.
1740—1742. First Silesian war.
1741—1762. Elizabeth Empress of Russia.
1742. Frederick victorious at Czaslau. Peace of Breslau.
1742—1745. The Emperor Charles VII. Maria Theresa at the diet of Presburg receives aid from Hungary. Charles VII. loses Bavaria. The French defeated at Dettingen.
1744. East Friesland annexed to Prussia.
1744—1745. Second Silesian war.
1745. After the death of Charles VII. his son relinquishes his claims to the Austrian succession.
1745—1806. THE HOUSE OF LORRAINE IN GERMANY AND AUSTRIA.
1745—1765. FRANCIS I., Emperor of Germany.
1745—1764. The Marquise de Pompadour governs France.
1745. Frederick II. victorious at Hohenfriedberg, Sorr, and Kesselsdorf. Peace concluded at Dresden between Austria and Prussia.

A.D.

1746. Maria Theresa enters into an alliance with Elizabeth against Frederick II.
The Pretender, Charles Edward, defeated at Culloden.
1748. Peace concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle between Austria and France.
1750—1777. Administration of Pombal in Portugal.
1751—1818. The house of Holstein-Gottorp in Sweden.
1755. Earthquake at Lisbon.
1756—1763. Third Silesian, or seven years' war.
1756—1763. Maritime war between France and England, occasioned by disputes respecting the boundaries of their American possessions.
1756. Frederick invades Saxony. Occupation of Dresden. Blockade of the Saxon army. Victory at Lowositz, in Bohemia.
1757. Frederick victorious at PRAGUE. Defeated at KOLLIN. The French defeated at Hastenbeck, and the Russians at Grossjagerndorf. Defeat of the French and imperial troops at ROSSBACH, and the Austrians at LEUTHEN.
1758. The French defeated at CREFELD, the Russians at ZORNDORF, and Frederick at HOCHKIRCH.
1759. The Austrians victorious at KUNERSDORF. Fink taken prisoner at Maxen. Ferdinand of Brunswick victorious at Minden.
1760. Fougûe taken prisoner at Landshut.
Frederick victorious at LIEGNITZ and Torgau.
1761. Frederick encamped at Bunzelwitz.
1762. Elizabeth succeeded on the throne of Russia by Peter III., who was followed at the end of six months by
1762—1796. Catherine II.
1762. Frederick victorious at Buckersdorf, and his brother Henry at Freiberg.
1763. The two seven years' wars terminated by the peace of Habertsburg and Paris.
Stanislaus Poniatowski, King of Poland. Confederation at Bar against the Russians.
1765—1790. JOSEPH II., EMPEROR OF GERMANY.
1767—1784. War of the English in the East Indies.
1768—1780. Three voyages of Cook round the world.
1768—1774. Russo-Turkish war.
1768. Corsica annexed to France.
1769. Napoleon Bonaparte born.
1772. First partition of Poland between Austria, Russia, and Prussia. The minister Struensee executed.
1773. Order of the Jesuits suppressed by Pope Clement XIV.
1774. Peace at Kutschuk-Kainardge between Russia and the Porte.
1774—1792. Louis XVI., King of France.
1775—1783. NORTH AMERICAN WAR OF LIBERATION.
1776. Thirteen North American provinces declare themselves independent of England.
1776—1791. Potemkin's administration.

A. D.
1778. France takes part in the North American war. Armed neutrality of the northern powers.
1778—1779. War of the Bavarian succession. Frederick II. invades Bohemia, and compels the Emperor
1779. in the peace of Teschen to relinquish all claims on Bavaria.
1780—1790. Joseph II. introduces several reforms.
1783. Peace concluded at Versailles between England and the North American states.
1785. Confederacy of the German Princes, founded by Frederick II., against the ambitious designs of Austria.
1786—1797. Frederick William II., King of Prussia.
1787—1792. War of the Porte with Russia and Austria.
1788—1790. War between Sweden and Russia.
1789. Constitution of the United States of America.

## THIRD PERIOD.

A. D. 1789—1848. FROM THE OUTBREAK OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION TO THE PRESENT TIME.

1789. THE STATES-GENERAL ASSEMBLED AT VERSAILLES: Dispute respecting the manner of taking the votes. The third estate votes itself a national assembly, and directs its attention chiefly to the drawing up of a constitution.
1789—1791. THE CONSTITUENT NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. Storming of the Bastille. Abolition of the feudal system. The national assembly adjourns from Versailles to Paris. New division of the kingdom. Assignats. Suppression of the monastic orders and the hereditary nobility. Formation of Clubs (Jacobins). Flight of the King. Completion of the first constitution.
1790—1792. Leopold II., Emperor of Germany.
1792—1806. FRANCIS II., THE LAST GERMAN EMPEROR.
1792—1804. FRANCE A REPUBLIC.
1792—1795. THE NATIONAL CONVENTION.
1792. Dumouriez victorious at Jemappes. He conquers the whole of Belgium.
1793. Execution of Louis XVI. Committee of public safety. Fall of the Gironde.
1793—1797. War of France against the first coalition.
1793. Battle of Neerwinden. Belgium re-conquered by the Austrians.
1793—1794. REIGN OF TERROR. Second constitution. A large force raised for resistance to foreign as well as domestic enemies (La Vendée). Public worship abolished. Executions *en masse*. Fall of Robespierre.
1793. Second partition of Poland between Prussia and Russia.
1794. The French, after the victory of Fleurus, regain possession of Belgium.
Re-action against the Terrorists. Third constitution.

A. D.

1795. THIRD PARTITION OF POLAND between Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
Separate peace concluded at Bâsle with Prussia.
1795—1806. Holland a Batavian republic.
1795—1799. Government of the French DIRECTORY.
1796. Jourdan and Moreau defeated by the Archduke Charles.
1796—1799. NAPOLEON'S CAMPAIGNS IN ITALY. Victories at Montenotte, Millesimo, Mondovi, Lodi. Mantua taken. Cispadane republic. Peace of Campo Formio. Cisalpine and Ligurian republics.
1797—1840. Frederick William III., King of Prussia.
1797, 1798. Difficulties between the United States and the French Directory. Preparations for war.
1798, 1799. BONAPARTE'S CAMPAIGN IN EGYPT AND SYRIA. The French take Malta. Battle of the Pyramids. The French fleet annihilated by Nelson in the bay of Aboukir. Storming of Jaffa. Unsuccessful siege of St. Jean d'Acre. The Turkish army defeated on their landing at Aboukir.
1798. Helvetic and Roman republics.
1799. WASHINGTON died, Dec. 14th, aged 68.
1799—1802. War of the SECOND COALITION against France.
1799. Fall of the Directory. Bonaparte FIRST CONSUL. Fourth constitution.
Naples a Parthenopœan republic.
Disastrous war of the French in Germany, Switzerland, and Italy.
1800. Napoleon recovers Upper Italy, by the victory of MARENGO.
Moreau's victory at Hohenlinden occasions
1801. The peace of LUNEVILLE between France and Austria.
The French evacuate Egypt.
1801—1825. Alexander I., Emperor of Russia.
1802. Peace of Amiens between France and England.
Napoleon Consul for life.
1804—1825. NAPOLEON HEREDITARY EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH.
1805. Napoleon King of Italy. Eugene Beuharnais Viceroy.
THE THIRD COALITION AGAINST FRANCE.
Mack capitulates in Ulm. Nelson slain in the battle of TRAFALGAR. Murat invests Vienna. Battle of the three Emperors at AUSTERLITZ. Peace concluded at Presburg. Bavaria and Würtemberg made kingdoms. Tyrol annexed to Bavaria.
1806—1808. Joseph Bonaparte King of Naples.
1806—1810. Louis Bonaparte King of Holland.
1806. DISSOLUTION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.
1806—1813. The Rhenish confederacy under the protection of Napoleon.
1806—1835. Francis I., Emperor of Austria.
1806. The FOURTH COALITION against France.
Defeat of the Prussians at Jena and Auerstädt.
Napoleon begins the continental system.

A. D.

1807. Indecisive engagement at Eylau.
Commencement of the reforms in Prussia, under Stein's administration.
The Russians defeated at FRIEDLAND. Napoleon concludes a peace at TILSIT with Russia and Prussia. Duchy of Warsaw annexed to Saxony.

1807—1813. Jerome Bonaparte King of Westphalia.

1807. Portugal invaded by the French. The royal family fly to Brazil.

1808—1814. WAR OF THE FRENCH IN SPAIN. Joseph Bonaparte King of Spain. Murat King of Naples.

1809. Saragossa taken. Wellesley victorious at Talavera.
AUSTRIAN WAR AGAINST NAPOLEON. Vienna a second time taken. Napoleon defeated, for the first time, at Aspern and Essling. Victorious at WAGRAM. Peace of Vienna.
Suppression of the Pope's temporal power.

1809—1810. Insurrection of the Tyrolese. Andrew Hofer shot at Mantua.

1810—1814. Holland united to France.

1810. Napoleon divorces Josephine, and marries Maria Louisa, Archduchess of Austria.

1810—1822. A revolution in the government of Prussia effected by the Chancellor Hardenberg.

1810—1813. Greatest extension of the French empire.

1811—1824. The American provinces revolt from Spain.

1812. Declaration of war by the United States against England (June 4th).

1812. NAPOLEON'S RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN. Victories of Smolensk and Borodino. Conflagration of Moscow. Retreat and destruction of the French army. Ney and Oudinot force the passage of the Beresina.

1813. GRAND CONFLICT OF THE ALLIED POWERS WITH NAPOLEON. Frederick William III. issues a proclamation to his people and army. Prussian levée en masse (Landwehr und Landsturm). Napoleon defeats the Prussians and Russians at Grossgorschen or Lützen, and again at Bautzen and Wurschen. Armistice. Austria takes part in the war. Napoleon victorious at Dresden. His generals defeated, viz., Oudinot at Grossbeeren, by Bülow. Macdonald at Wahlstatt, by Blücher. Vandamme at Culm, and Ney at Dennewitz.
DECISIVE BATTLE OF THE NATIONS, AT LEIPZIC. Battle of Hanau. Wellington defeats the French at Vittoria.

1814. The allies enter France. Blücher defeats the French at la Rothière and Laon. Paris taken. Napoleon abdicates and retires to Elba.
First peace of Paris.
CONGRESS of Vienna.
The order of Jesuits restored by Pius VII.

A. D.

1814. Treaty of Peace between the United States and England (signed at Ghent, Dec. 24th).

1815. Napoleon returns from Elba. The hundred days.
LAST CONFLICT OF THE ALLIES WITH NAPOLEON.
Blücher defeated at Ligny. Ney victorious at Quatrebras. Wellington and Blücher terminate the war by the victory at WATERLOO. Second abdication of Napoleon.

1815—1830. Restoration of the Bourbons.
THE HOLY ALLIANCE between Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

1815. Second peace of Paris.

1817. The Prussian evangelical Church formed by the union of the Lutheran and Reformed Communions.

1818. Congress of sovereigns at Aix-la-Chapelle. It is resolved to withdraw the army of occupation from France.
Bernadotte Crown Prince of Sweden.

1820. Military revolutions in Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Congresses assembled, in consequence of these movements, at Troppau, Laibach, and Verona (1820—1823.)

1821. Napoleon dies at St. Helena.

1821—1828. THE GREEKS THROW OFF THE TURKISH YOKE.

1822. Brazil revolts from Portugal.

1827. Battle of Navarino.

1828—1829. Russian-Turkish war. Peace of Adrianople.

1829. Emancipation of the Roman Catholics in England.

1830. Algiers taken by the French. REVOLUTION OF JULY AT PARIS.
Louis Philippe, king of the French.
Separation of Belgium from Holland. Leopold I., King of the Belgians.

1830—1831. The Polish revolution.
Disturbances in Brunswick, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, Hanover, and Switzerland.

1831—1833. Mohammed Ali declares himself independent of the Porte.

1832. Otho I., King of Greece.

1832—1834. Contest between Don Pedro and Don Miguel.

1833—1840. War of the Spanish succession.

1834. The German commercial league (Zollverein) established.

1835. Ferdinand I., Emperor of Austria.

1837. Hanover separated from England.

1839—1841. Second war between the Porte and Mohammed Ali.

1840. Frederick William IV., King of Prussia.

1843. Oregon treaty.

1845. Don Carlos relinquishes his claim to the Spanish throne in favor of his eldest son the Prince of Asturias.

1845. Texas annexed to the United States.

1846. Pius IX. pope. His reforms.
Cracow annexed to Prussia.

1847. First united diet in Prussia.
War of the Swiss diet against the Sonderbund of the seven Roman Catholic cantons.

A. D.

1847. Parma, after the death of Maria Louisa, subject to the Duke of Lucca.

Abd-el-Kader surrenders to General Lamoricière.

1848. (Jan.) Insurrection at Palermo.

(Feb.) The Mexican union cedes Upper California and New Mexico to the United States.

A constitution given to the kingdom of the two Sicilies.

Constitution for Tuscany.

Revolution at Paris. Resignation of Guizot. Flight of Louis Philippe. Monarchy abolished. Provisional government. PROCLAMATION OF THE SECOND FRENCH REPUBLIC.

(March.) Important political privileges granted to the people in most of the Germam states.

The connection of Neufchatel with Prussia dissolved.

Meeting of the fifty-one at Heidelberg for the purpose of convoking a German national representative assembly.

Petition of the states of Lower Austria at Vienna.

RESIGNATION OF METTERNICH. Concessions.

A constitution granted to the states of the Church.

Abolition of the censorship in Prussia. COMBAT IN THE STREETS OF BERLIN. Further concessions.

Insurrection at Milan.

Louis I., of Bavaria, abdicates in favor of Maximilian II.

Provisional government established at Venice.

Hungary obtains a ministry of its own.

The preliminary parliament at Frankfort.

(April.) Second united diet in Prussia.

War of the Austrians against the Lombards and Sardinians.

War of the Danes against Schleswig-Holstein and its German allies.

The province of Prussia and a part of the province of Posen admitted into the German confederacy.

(May.) Opening of the Assemblée Nationale at Paris. Election of an executive commission.

A constitutional diet, with ONE chamber, granted to Austria.

Opening of the CONSTITUENT[1] GERMAN NATIONAL ASSEMBLY AT FRANKFORT.

(June.) Opening of the first parliament at Rome.

Disturbances among the ouvriers at Paris. The executive authority intrusted to General Cavaignac.

Resolution of the German national assembly respecting the establishment of a PROVISIONAL CENTRAL GOVERNMENT FOR GERMANY.

The ARCHDUKE JOHN of Austria elected ADMINISTRATOR OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

[1] Verfassungsgebende; constitution-giving.

A. D.

1848. (July.) Opening of the diet at Vienna (in the absence of the emperor) by the Archduke John.
Radetzky defeats the Sardinians at Custozza.
(Aug.) Milan retaken by Radetzsky.
(Sept.) The new constitution proclaimed in Switzerland.
War between the Croatians and Hungarians.
(Oct.) A fresh revolution at Vienna accasioned by the resistance offered by the national guard to the march of the imperial troops against the Hungarians. Flight of the emperor to Olmütz.
(Nov.) Vienna retaken by Windischgrätz and Jellachich.
The diet removed to Kremsier.
A new constitution for Holland proclaimed.
The Prussian assembly removed from Berlin to Brandenburg.
Flight of the Pope to Gaeta.
(Dec.) Abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand I. in favor of his nephew Francis Joseph I.
Louis Napoleon elected President of the French Republic. (Dec. 10th.)

1849. Roman Republic proclaimed, Feb. 9th.
(July 3) Rome surrendered to the French.

1850. (April.) The Pope returns to Rome.

1850. Gen. Zachary Taylor, President of the United States, died July 9th.
Louis Philippe, ex-king of the French, died, Aug. 26th., in England.

# QUESTIONS.

§ 1. *Discoveries, Conquests, and Colonies, of the Europeans in other quarters of the Globe.*

(3.) By what nations were voyages of discovery undertaken towards the close of the fifteenth century? By what circumstance were they induced to undertake these voyages? What object did they hope to attain? In what direction did they respectively steer?

(4.) Enumerate the discoveries and conquests of the Spaniards.

(5.) Who was Columbus? To what parties did he apply in the first instance? With what success? To whom did he then address himself? What encouragement did he at last receive, and from whom? From what port and in what year did he sail? What countries did he discover? What name did he give to one of these islands? What discoveries did he make in his second and third voyages? Under what circumstances did he return to Spain after his third voyage? What discovery did he attempt in his fourth voyage, and with what success? Where and in what year did he die? From whom did the newly-discovered continent receive its name? What work did he publish? What country was soon afterwards discovered by the Spaniards?

(6.) By what Spaniard was the next voyage of discovery undertaken? From what island did he sail, and where did he land? What was the result of this invasion? What disaster followed, and by what circumstance was it occasioned? What dignity was conferred on him, and by whom? For what purpose did he return to Spain? How was he received by the king? What office was he permitted to retain? What discovery did he make? Where and of what disease did he die?

(7.) By whom, and in what year was a passage into the South Sea discovered? What name was given to this channel? What name did he give to the South Sea? What was his fate? What exploit was performed by his crew?

(8.) By whom was Peru discovered? Had he any colleagues? What circumstance facilitated the conquest of Peru? What name was given to the new capital? By whom was the conquest of Chili undertaken? What circumstance occasioned his execution? What was the fate of Pizarro?

(9.) To what body was the government of these provinces intrusted? Where did they sit? What local government was established? By what measures was civilization promoted? What were the chief obstacles to their success? What benefit was derived from these settlements? By whom were the mines worked? At whose suggestion? What unjust restrictions were imposed on the colonists? How were disputes with Portugal avoided? By whom was this boundary established? Through what degrees of longitude was it drawn?

(10.) By whom was the Cape of Good Hope discovered? By what Portuguese sovereign were fresh attempts made to find a passage by sea to the East Indies? By whom, and in what year was this passage discovered? Where did he land?

(11.) By what nations was the supremacy of Portugal in the East Indies disputed? How was this supremacy maintained? What city was the central point of these establishments? By whom were they chiefly planned?

(12.) By whom was Brazil discovered, and in what year was it colonized? With what countries were commercial treaties concluded by Portugal?

(13.) By what circumstances were the Dutch induced to undertake an expedition to India? What was the result of this expedition? In what year did this event occur? In what year was the Dutch East India Company formed? What advantages did it enjoy by the terms of its charter? Where were the principal Dutch settlements? In what city was the seat of government established? On what island was it situated? In what year was the Dutch West India Company established? What conquests did it achieve? Was it able to retain these conquests?

(14.) By whom, and in what year was the discovery of a north-western passage to India attempted? Who endeavored to discover a north-eastern passage? Was either of these adventures successful? By what sovereign, and in what year, was the English East India Company chartered? What territories did it possess? By what other nation were settlements formed in the West India islands?

### § 2. *The Reformation.*

(16.) To what causes do you mainly attribute the rapid progress of the Reformation in the sixteenth century?

(17.) From what period do you date the decline of the papal influence? Enumerate the causes of this decline. Which of the popes were particularly disreputable? In what country was the feeling of hostility to the papal see most bitter? Can you mention any other causes?

(18.) What was the immediate cause of the Reformation in Germany? By what pope, and for what purpose, was this system sanctioned? By whom was it opposed? Where, and in what year was he born? What was his first act of aggression against the papal system? Mention the date of this event. What doctrine did he maintain in his theological treatises? In what language

were they written? What measures were adopted by the pope in consequence of these proceedings? What indulgence was granted to the Reformer, and at whose request? With whom was he permitted to discuss the question? At what diet? What was the result of this conference? Who was afterwards appointed as the pope's representative? What was the result of his conference with Luther? Where, and in conjunction with whom, did Luther hold a disputation with Dr. Eck? What bull was published by the pope in consequence of these proceedings? How was this bull treated by Luther? What writings shared the same fate? What was the consequence of this daring act? In what year did Luther appear before the diet of Worms? What was the result of Luther's refusal to retract his assertions? By what name was this sentence distinguished? Where did he find an asylum? What great work was completed by Luther during his retirement?

(19.) In whom did the reformed doctrines find an able defender? What work did he publish? Who were the most distinguished opponents of the Reformation? In what countries did the reformed doctrines first gain a footing? To what circumstance do you attribute the success of the Reformers in Prussia? In what year did this event take place? Whom did the new Duke marry? What bold course was adopted by Luther? What was the name of this lady? What disastrous result was produced by the misinterpretation of Luther's doctrines? Was there no other cause? In what country, and in what year, did this war break out? Over what countries did it spread? Can you mention any distinguished noble who was compelled to join the insurgents? What was the result of this attempt? By whom, and with what success was a subsequent attempt made?

(20.) What demands were made by the peasants? Were there not others of a still more fanatical character? On what did they found these demands?

(21.) In what year, and by whom, was the diet of Spires assembled? For the discussion of what subjects? What resolutions did it adopt? From what circumstance were the Reformers called Protestants?

(22.) With what view did the emperor assemble the diet of Augsburg? In what year? What important document was read at this diet? By whom was it drawn up? Who signed it? What imperial edict was then issued? What was the result of this proceeding? Where, and in what year, was the league formed? Who were parties to the league? To what course of action did they pledge themselves? What effect had their firmness on the emperor? What were the terms of this convention? By what name was it known? By whom was the calm disturbed? Where did this sect re-appear?

(23.) Who were the leaders? In what year did Mattheys visit Münster? What was his fate, and by whom was he succeeded? What was the first act of the new leader? What was his fate? Who suffered with him? In what year was the council of Trent opened? When did Martin Luther die? Why did the Protest-

ants refuse to appear before the council? What demand did they make? What effect did the threats of the emperor produce on some of the Protestant leaders? Who were their principal supporters? What course did they pursue? What measures were adopted by the emperor in consequence of these proceedings?

(24.) In what year did the Schmalkaldian war commence? To what circumstance was Charles indebted for his escape? Where did he engage the Schmalkaldian confederates, and with what success? By whom were the territories of the Elector of Saxony invaded?

(25.) Where was the elector defeated, and what disastrous consequences followed? In whose favor was he compelled to abdicate? What became of the Landgrave of Hesse? To what place did the council of Trent adjourn? What decree was issued by the emperor? By what name was this decree known, and for what reason? Why was this arrangement distasteful both to the Pope and the Protestants? What city distinguished itself by its opposition to the emperor's decree? By whom was it taken? What circumstance occasioned a change in the aspect of affairs? What excuse did he make for this act of treachery? By what sovereigns was he supported? What act of aggression was committed by the King of France? Where was the emperor at this time, and what course was he forced to adopt? On what terms, and in what year, was the convention of Passau concluded? What became of the Landgrave of Hesse and the Elector of Saxony? What attempt was made by the emperor, and with what success? In what year, and with what result, was the battle of Sievershausen fought? What celebrated general was mortally wounded in this battle? Where, and by whom, was the promised diet opened? In what year? On what terms was a peace concluded? By what name was it known? What was the only subject of dispute?

(26.) How many years did the session of the council of Trent continue? To what objects did it now direct its attention?

(27.) What religion was adopted by the sovereigns of the Scandinavian kingdoms? What advantage did they gain by this change? By what abuses were the inhabitants of the North of Europe rendered discontented with the old system?

(28.) Who was Zwingli? Where, and in what year, was he born? What irregular practice did he first oppose? What Romish doctrines did he afterwards attack? Compare the Reformations of Luther and Zwingli? What was the grand subject of dispute between the two Reformers? Mention the opinion of each of them respecting the Holy Eucharist. By what Swiss cantons was the doctrine of Zwingli embraced? What cantons rejected it? What was the fate of Zwingli? What was the immediate result of this battle? To what circumstance do you ascribe the establishment of Protestantism in French-Switzerland? Where were the head-quarters of the reformed belief?

(29.) Who was Calvin? Where, and in what year, was he born? What was his original profession? Where did he seek an asylum? What important work did he publish? What befell him

at Geneva? Mention his peculiar doctrines? What form of Church government was established at Geneva? Into what other countries, and by whom, was it introduced?

(30.) Into what other countries did the teaching of Calvin spread? By what name were the Protestants distinguished in France? In whose reigns did they form a powerful party?

(31.) To what circumstance do you attribute the rapid progress of the Reformation in the Netherlands?

(32.) What occasioned the separation of the seven northern provinces from Spain?

(33.) What form of Protestantism was established in these provinces?

(34.) Why did Henry VIII. quarrel with the Pope? What title did he assume? What punishments were inflicted on those who refused to recognize his supremacy? What sweeping plans of spoliation were carried into effect in England? By whom, and in whose reign, were the doctrines of the Reformation first introduced into England? Who re-established the connection with Rome? What cruelties were now inflicted on the Protestants? What was the fate of Archbishop Cranmer? By whom was Protestantism restored? What was the constitution of the reformed Anglican Church? By what party was this arrangement opposed? Whence did they derive their name? What other sect sprang up in the reign of Charles I.? What tenet was maintained by these schismatics?

(35.) To what circumstance do you attribute the success of the Reformers in Scotland? Who was the most vehement opponent of the Church of Rome in that country?

(36.) What attempts were made to establish Protestantism in Ireland? With what success?

(37.) Into what countries did the Reformation extend from Germany?

### § 3. *Germany under Maximilian I. and Charles V.*

(38.) On what condition did the estates of the empire grant a subsidy to the emperor for carrying on the Italian war? Where did Maximilian hold a diet, and what important change was made in the constitution? In what year was it held? With what authority was the imperial chamber invested? By whom was the president of this court nominated? By whom were the other members elected? Where did the chamber now hold its sittings? Was the place of its meeting ever changed? In what year was it dissolved? What measure was adopted for the better maintenance of peace? At what diet, and in what year, was this arrangement made? Name the ten circles, and enumerate the countries comprehended in each.

(39.) In the Austrian circle.

(40.) The Bavarian.

(41.) The Swabian.

(42.) The Franconian.

(43.) The Upper Rhenish.
(44.) The Electoral, or Lower Rhenish.
(45.) The Burgundian.
(46.) The Westphalian.
(47.) The Lower Saxon.
(48.) The Upper Saxon.

(49.) How many states were comprehended in these circles? Was the attendance of members at the diet in proportion to the number of states? Why not? What countries were excluded from this arrangement? What privileges were conferred on Switzerland? What became of Italy and the kingdom of Arles?

(50.) On what did Charles VIII. of France found his claims to the Neapolitan throne? In what year did he obtain possession of Naples? What circumstance occasioned the formation of a league against him, and who were the parties to that league? What was the result of this movement?

(51.) By what French king, and in what year, was Milan conquered? On what did he found his claims? By whom were the French expelled? What was his fate?

(52.) With whom, and for what purpose, did Louis XII. King of France, form an alliance? By what circumstance had his power been augmented? What became of the reigning sovereign of Naples? By whom, and in consequence of what dispute, was Louis compelled to relinquish his claims?

(53.) With what sovereigns, and for what purpose, did Louis XII. enter into a confederacy in the year 1508? Why do you consider this a proof of his weakness? By what name was this treaty known? What were its provisions? Where, and with what result, was the first battle fought? Under what circumstances was the confederacy broken up? With what powers did the Venetians then form a league? For the attainment of what object?

(54.) By what name was it distinguished? What heavy loss was sustained by the French? In what year? What celebrated French general fell in the battle of Ravenna? By whom was Milan then garrisoned? By whom, and where, were the French defeated soon after the battle of Novara? By whom was Milan taken for the fourth time? In conjunction with what allies? After what victory? In what year? What became of Maximilian Sforza?

(55.) To what marriages was Maximilian indebted for an accession of territory? What title did he adopt? In consequence of what circumstance? At what period of their reign did his successors assume the imperial dignity? Was there no exception?

(56.) Trace the pedigree of the house of Hapsburg in Germany and Spain?

(57.) How many candidates for the imperial crown presented themselves after the death of Maximilian? On what favorable circumstances did Francis rely for success? What was the result? What instrument was the newly elected emperor required to sign?

How was France affected by this union of the Spanish and German crowns? In what year, and from whose hands, did Charles receive the imperial and Italian crowns?

(58.) What was the immediate occasion of a war between Charles and Francis I.? From what princess, and by whom, had the duchy of Burgundy been wrested? By whom had the kingdom of Navarre been conquered? What untoward circumstance occasioned the loss of Milan? On whom was it conferred? What heavy loss was sustained by Francis during his preparations for its reception? To what circumstance do you attribute the defection of the Constable Charles de Bourbon? What renowned French general lost his life during the retreat from Milan?

(59.) Of what opportunity did Francis avail himself for a last attempt at Milan? What advantage did he gain? By what general were the imperialists commanded at the battle of Pavia? What was the issue of this battle? In what year was it fought? What became of Francis I? By what concessions did he purchase his liberation? On what grounds did he refuse to fulfil these conditions? What consequences followed this refusal? With what powers did the pope form an alliance? By whom were the imperial troops commanded? What was his fate? By what troops was Rome stormed? Who was their general? What was his fate? In what fortress did the pope take refuge? On what conditions was he released? By whom, and in what year, was the kingdom of Naples conquered? Who was Andrew Doria, and what service did he render to the Neapolitans? What misfortune befell the French besieging army? In what year was the peace of Cambray concluded? By what name was it known, and why? What concessions were made by Francis? What territory did he retain?

(60.) By whom was Solyman II. invited to enter Hungary? What battle was fought in that country, and with what result? By whom was Lewis King of Hungary succeeded? Was there any other candidate for the Hungarian crown? By whom was he protected? What city did Solyman besiege, and why did he withdraw his army? Which of the rivals remained King of Hungary? To what circumstance was he indebted for his success? In what year did Solyman a second time enter Hungary? With what force? What unexpected check did he receive? Were there any other reasons for his retreat?

(61.) Who was Hayraddin Barbarossa? What sovereign had he deposed, and where had he established himself? By whom were his acts of piracy unsuccessfully resisted? What fiefs had been granted to this order? By whom, and on what conditions? What measures were adopted by the emperor for the reduction of Tunis? With what success? To whom was the greater part of the conquered territory restored?

(62.) What districts were excepted? What circumstance encouraged Francis I. to attempt the re-conquest of Milan? In what year was this attempt made? From whom did Francis demand a free passage through his territories? What provinces did he now enter, and against whom did he declare war? With whom did he

form an alliance? What country was invaded by Charles V.? With what success? In what year, and at what place, was an armistice concluded? On what conditions?

(63.) What was the occasion of Charles's expedition against Algiers? In what year was it undertaken? By what accident were his plans frustrated?

(64.) What circumstances seemed favorable for the re-assertion of his claims by Francis I.? Of what pretext did he avail himself? Who were his allies?

(65.) Into whose hands did Christian Hungary fall after the death of Zapolya? By whom were the Netherlands invaded? In what sea, and by whom, were naval operations carried on? Which of his enemies was first defeated by Charles V.? To what circumstance do you ascribe his overthrow? From what powers did the empire receive assistance? By what movement was the peace of Crespy hastened? In what year was it concluded? To what conditions did the two sovereigns pledge themselves? What claims were at the same time renounced by Francis?

(66.) Of what German cities did Henry II. obtain possession? By what means? By whom, and with what result, was an attempt made to re-conquer those cities?

(67.) What was the immediate occasion of the abdication of Charles V.? When, and to whom, did he resign the sovereignty of Naples, Milan, the Netherlands, and Spain? In whose favor did he abdicate the imperial dignity? Whither did he retire? How was his time occupied in his retirement? When did he die?

### § 4. *Spain.*

(68.) What circumstances laid the foundation of a union between the kingdoms of Aragon and Castile? What kingdoms were added to these possessions, and by whom? What was the grand object of the two sovereigns? What measures were adopted for the promotion of this object? What use was made of the newly-established inquisition? What advantage did the crown obtain by the banishment of the Jews? What remarkable events happened during the reign of Ferdinand? In what conquests, and under what commander, was reputation gained by the warriors of Spain? By whom was Isabella succeeded in the sovereignty of Castile? How long did Philip reign? What happened to his widow after his death? What measure was adopted by Ximenes in consequence of this event?

(69) By whom was Ferdinand succeeded? Under whose guardianship did Charles I. commence his reign? What was the fate of this minister? Who was appointed regent of the kingdom during the absence of Charles? What measures were adopted by the cities of Castile, in consequence of his oppressive conduct? What name was given to their confederation? By whom was their army commanded? What was his fate? What measures were adopted by Charles on his return? In what condition was the Cortes?

(70.) What dominions had Charles inherited from his ancestors? What addditions had he made to these possessions? To whom did he resign the greater part of this territory? What countries were excepted?

(71.) Whom did Philip II. marry? What was his character? What circumstance rendered him unpopular in the Netherlands? What war did he carry on? By whom was he assisted, and how was the war terminated? Where was peace concluded, and on what conditions? To what city was the royal residence transferred in this reign? What was the political state of Spain at this period? How were the Moors treated by Philip? What was the effect of this treatment? Where, and by what nations was the naval power of the Turks annihilated? By whom was the combined fleet commanded?

(72.) What severe loss was sustained by Spain at this period? What province was annexed to the Spanish crown? Under what circumstances? By what aggressions on the part of Queen Elizabeth was Philip provoked to invade England? What name was given to the invading fleet? What was its fate? What effect had this disaster on the power of Spain? What became of Philip's son, Don Carlos?

(73.) What narrow-minded policy was pursued by Philip III., and what was its effect? In what year, and for how long, was an armistice concluded with the Netherlands?

(74.) By what sovereign was the ruin of Spain further accelerated? To whom did he abandon the government of the country? What was the policy of this minister, and what was its effect? How did they resist? By whom was Olivarez succeeded? By what long measures were fresh discontents occasioned in the provinces? What circumstance occasioned an insurrection at Naples? By whom was it headed, and what was his fate? What was the result of this violence? In what peace was the independence of the United Netherlands fully recognized by Spain?

### § 5. *The Netherlands.*

(75.) To what kingdom did the Netherlands belong during the mediæval period? After the partition of that kingdom, to what country were they annexed? Were there any subsequent changes? Whose property did they eventually become? How many Netherlandish provinces did Charles the Bold possess? By what marriage, and in whose reign, were they annexed to Austria? Were any provinces subequently added to them? By what sovereign? What privileges were obtained by the Netherlandish States? What monarch took an oath to respect these privileges? Whom did Philip leave as his representative when he quitted the Netherlands? By whom was she assisted? On what native nobles were important offices conferred? How were these popular measures neutralized? On whom was the archbishopric of Mechlin conferred? By what circumstance was the discontent, occasioned by these proceedings, aggravated? Against what laws was a protest presented to the duchess-regent by "les gueux?" Explain the meaning of

the term (note 10). How was this petition received? What effects followed the popular movement? Were these concessions satisfactory to all? What became of the Prince of Orange and his adherents? Under whose commands, and in what year, was a Spanish army sent into the Netherlands? What circumstances led to the resignation of the Regent Margaret? To what country did she retire? Who was then appointed sole governor of the Netherlands? What commission did he establish, and against whom did it commence proceedings? What punishment was inflicted on Egmont and Hoorn?

(76.) What measures were now adopted by the Prince of Orange? By whom was he assisted? Was this attempt successful? What act of oppression occasioned a fresh insurrection? By whom was it headed? What title was conferred on him? By whom was Alva succeeded in the government of the Netherlands? What was the policy of the new governor? Was it successful? Where, and for what purpose, was a confederation of the Netherlandish provinces formed? Who was then appointed governor of the Netherlands? How long did he hold the office, and by whom was he succeeded?

(77.) What doctrines were embraced by the seven northern provinces? Where did they form a union, and in what year? On whom did they intend to confer the hereditary countship of the Netherlands? What circumstance prevented the execution of this plan? To whom was the government of the Seven United Provinces then committed?

(78.) Of what cities did Alexander of Parma obtain possession? In what siege did both parties distinguish themselves? To what sovereign did the states-general apply for assistance? Who was then appointed general stattholder? What circumstance occasioned his resignation? By whom, and with what intention, was the "Invincible Armada" fitted out? By what power were the United Provinces assisted? What town was taken by the Spanish general, Spinola? What was the result of their continued resistance? When, and under what circumstances, was their independence recognized by Spain?

(79.) Into how many parties were the Dutch Protestants divided at this time? On what subject did they differ? In what year, and by what synod, was the doctrine of the Arminians condemned? What treatment did they receive from their opponents? Who were the principal sufferers?

### § 6. *Portugal.*

(80.) Under what rulers was Portugal most prosperous? To what circumstances do you chiefly attribute this prosperity?

(81.) In what battle was King Sebastian defeated? By whom was he succeeded? In what year did Portugal become a Spanish province? Was she permitted to retain her own constitution?

(82.) By how many pretenders was the crown claimed in succession? Is it certain that the fourth of these pretenders was an impostor? What loss did Portugal sustain under Spanish domina-

tion? Of what privileges was she deprived? Mention some of her grievances? How was this state of slavery terminated? Who was then raised to the throne? Were any attempts made on the part of Spain to reconquer Portugal?

§ 7. *France.*

(83.) Who succeeded Charles VIII. on the throne of France? To what circumstances do you attribute the important position at that time occupied by France? Was her territory more or less extensive at that time than it is at present?

(84.) What was the character of Francis I.? What was the first act of his reign? To what victory was he indebted for the attainment of this object? With whom was he engaged in four wars, and what was the result? To what circumstances do you attribute this disaster? By what evils was it followed? What advantages did he gain at home? How was he enabled to discharge his foreign mercenaries? To whom was legislation for the most part intrusted? What title was conferred on Francis I., and for what reason?

(85.) By whom was he succeeded? By what favorites was the new king governed? What war did he renew, and on what grounds? What was the ostensible reason, and how do you prove its inconsistency? What cities were betrayed into the hands of the French? Who distinguished himself by his defence of one of these cities? When did the French recommence hostilities? Where, and by what forces, were they defeated?

(86.) When, and where, was peace concluded, and on what terms? What town was retained by the French? From whom had it been recaptured?

(87.) How old was Francis II. when he ascended the throne? When did he marry? What was his character? To what parties was the regency an object of ambition? On what grounds did each of these parties claim the office? Which of them was successful? By whom were the military and civil administrations of the kingdom successively undertaken?

(88.) By whom was Francis II. succeeded? How old was the new sovereign when he ascended the throne? By whom was the regency now undertaken? Who was appointed lieutenant of the kingdom? What privilege was granted to the Huguenots? For how many years was France distracted by religious wars? By what circumstances was the first of these wars occasioned?

(89.) What success attended the military movements of the Huguenots in the three first wars? By whom were they commanded at different periods? By what peace was each of these wars terminated? What terms were obtained by the Huguenots? To what circumstance do you ascribe this? By what favorable prospect were the Protestants induced to visit Paris? What atrocious act was perpetrated by the government? Who escaped this massacre? By whom was it planned? What sanguinary orders were at the same time issued? Were they disobeyed in any instance? What stronghold of the Huguenots was besieged in the fourth re-

ligious war? When, and on what conditions, was peace concluded? By whom was Charles IX. succeeded? Of what country had he been previously king?

(90.) What was the character of this prince? By whom was he influenced, and what policy did he pursue? To what circumstance do you attribute the formation of the Catholic league? At whose instigation was it formed? What was the ostensible, and what the real, object of this league? By whom was it headed, and what was his motive? What act of tyranny occasioned a fresh war? By whom were the Huguenots commanded? What was the object of the league which was now formed, and by what name was it known? What became of Henry of Guise? Who shared his fate? What name was given to the day on which the king fled from Paris? What line of policy was now pursued by Henry III.? What was his fate? Whom did he recommend as his successor?

(91.) How long did the struggle continue between the league and Henry IV.? What victories did he gain? What change took place in his religious profession? By what edict were the religious wars terminated? How long had they lasted?

(92.) What privileges were granted to the Protestants by this edict? How was this period of tranquillity employed by Henry? By whom was he assisted in carrying out his plans? What policy was now adopted by Henry, and with what object? What wild plan did he devise? What was his object in proposing such a plan? Of how many states was this confederation to be composed? What result was expected from this combination? What was the fate of Henry IV.?

(93.) By whom was he succeeded? Under whose guardianship did the new king commence his reign? What minister was dismissed? After his dismissal, what course was pursued by the Queen Mother? Under whose direction? How was this extravagant course checked? By whose interposition was a war between the king and his mother averted? What was the policy of this minister? What became of the Queen Mother? Mention the grand objects of Richelieu's administration? How was the first of these objects effected? In what countries were his political measures, for the extension of French influence, most successfully adopted? By what circumstance was the Mantuan war of succession terminated? What plans were successfully carried out in Germany? By what circumstance was the last of these measures rendered imperative? To what position did the foreign power of Richelieu raise France? What plans of domestic improvement were devised? For the establishment of what institution is France indebted to him? To whom did Louis XIII. leave his kingdom? How old was the new king when he ascended the throne?

§ 8. *England and Ireland under the house of Tudor.* 1485—1603.

(94.) By whom, and in what battle, was the war between the houses of York and Lancaster terminated? To what circumstance do you attribute the feebleness of the opposition experienced by Henry VII.? What was his policy, and what important measures were carried into effect during his reign?

(95.) Explain the genealogical table of the houses of Tudor and Stuart?

(96.) By whom was Henry VII. succeeded? Whom did the new king marry? How did he expend the treasures bequeathed to him by his father? To whom did he leave the management of public affairs? How was his own time occupied? What work did he publish, and what title of honor did he receive from the pope in consequence? On what ground did he quarrel with the pope? What course did he adopt, as soon as the refusal of the pope was communicated to him? What issue had he by this second wife? What title did he now assume? Who was punished with death for resisting this claim? What became of Anna Boleyn? Whom did he marry immediately after her death? What issue had he by his third wife? What act was now passed by the parliament? Who was Henry's fourth wife, and what became of her? Who was his fifth, and on what pretence was she beheaded? Who was his sixth wife, and for what offence was she condemned to death? Was this sentence executed?

(97.) By whom was Henry VIII. succeeded? How old was the new king when he ascended the throne? Who was his guardian? What was the fate of Somerset, and to whom was the administration of public affairs committed after his death? Whom did the king declare heiress to the crown? Who assumed the crown immediately after Edward's death? How long did she retain it, and in whose favor did she abdicate?

(98.) Whom did the new sovereign marry? What punishment was inflicted on Northumberland, and for what offence? What became of Jane Grey and her husband? What circumstances attended the re-establishment of Romanism in England? Name some of the most distinguished Protestants who suffered death during the reign of Queen Mary. Under whose influence did Mary act on this and other occasions? In what war did she engage by his persuasion? What English possession on the continent did she lose? By whom was the title of Queen of England assumed after the death of Mary?

(99.) Who actually ascended the throne? What was the character of the new sovereign? By whom was she recognized as supreme head of the Anglican Church? What do you understand by this title? (note 6.) Who were her ministers? To what circumstances do you attribute the prosperous condition of England during her reign? By what invention were the operations of manufacturing industry extended? How was foreign commerce

promoted? What great commercial company was incorporated in this reign? What circumstances occasioned the sending out of the Invincible Armada? By whom was this fleet commanded? With what squadron was it proposed that this fleet should form a junction? How was this prevented? What completed the destruction of the Armada? What measures were adopted by England immediately after this victory? What country was more closely united to England than before? What portion of this country had previously belonged to England? What promise was made to the Irish by the Earl of Essex? Was this promise fulfilled? What was the condition of England at this period of her history? At what period of Elizabeth's reign was Scotland united to England and Ireland?

### § 9. *Scotland under the Stuarts.*

(100.) By what family had Scotland been governed since the year 1371? What misfortunes befell the five kings of the house of Stuart?

(101.) By whom was James V. succeeded? Where was the young queen educated? By whom was Scotland governed during her absence? What title did Mary Stuart assume after the death of Mary, Queen of England? By whom was the Scotch Reformation commenced? When did Mary return to Scotland? Whom did she marry, and what was his fate? Who was her second husband, and what were the results of this marriage? Who was appointed regent of the kingdom? Whither did Mary flee? On what grounds was she deprived of liberty by Queen Elizabeth? How long was she detained in prison? What was her fate? In consequence of what accusation? By whom was she succeeded on the Scottish throne?

(102.) By how many regents was Scotland governed during the minority of James VI? How many of them escaped a violent death? What triumph was obtained by the Presbyterians during his reign? What title was assumed by James after the death of Queen Elizabeth? In what year was the complete union of the two kingdoms effected?

### § 10. *Great Britain and Ireland under the two first Stuarts.*

(103.) Mention the causes of James's unpopularity among his English subjects. What was the object of the Gunpowder Plot? How was this conspiracy discovered?

(104.) By whom was James I. succeeded? What were the grounds of his quarrel with the parliament? What important privileges were secured by the "Petition of Right?" For how many years was the government carried on without a parliament? What became of the Duke of Buckingham? How did the king violate the "Petition of Right?" For what purpose was this tax imposed? What occasioned the formation of the "Solemn League

and Covenant" in Scotland, and what was its object? What measures were adopted by Charles in consequence of this movement? What extravagant demands were made by the new parliament? Who were sacrificed to their fury? What officer soon distinguished himself in the parliament army? How often did they engage the royal forces, and with what results? Where did the king then seek an asylum? On what pretence was he delivered up to the parliament? Between what parties did disputes arise at this time? Which of these parties obtained possession of the king's person? By whom was an attempt made to rescue him? What name was given to the parliament after the expulsion of the Presbyterians? What sentence was passed on Charles I.? When and where was it executed?

### § 11. *Italy.*

(105.) How was the political equipoise, established in the fifteenth century between the different states of Italy, destroyed in the sixteenth? What kingdom was added to Sicily and Sardinia by Ferdinand the Catholic? To whom, and after the extinction of what house, was Milan granted as a fief by Charles V.

(106.) What changes took place in the duchies of Savoy, Mantua, and Modena? To whom did the duchies of Parma and Piacenza belong at different periods?

(107.) What territories were possessed by the republic of Venice at this time? To what circumstance do you attribute her wars with the Southern Italian powers, and what was the result of those wars? What injuries were inflicted on her by the Turks? To what do you attribute the ruin of her commerce? To what nation did Genoa at first belong, and by whom was it twice conquered? How did the republic obtain its independence? What form of government was established, and how long did it last? What was the object of Fiesco's conspiracy, and why did it miscarry?

(108.) To what house did Tuscany remain subject? Under what forms of government?

(109.) What territories were added to the States of the Church?

### § 12. *Germany, from the abdication of Charles V. to the peace of Westphalia.*

(110.) What oath was required from the Emperor Ferdinand I. on his accession? What was his character? What success attended his wars with France and Turkey?

(111.) To what do you attribute his death? How did he propose to effect a reconciliation of the two confessions? By whom was he succeeded?

(112.) In what war did the new emperor engage? How was this war terminated? What murderer was put to death by this emperor?

(113.) By whom was Maximilian II. succeeded? What was the character of this sovereign? By what disputes was his reign distracted? Mention the circumstances which increased the estrangement between the two parties? What advice was given to the Protestant princes by the Elector Palatine? What was the professed object of this union?

(114.) By whom was the Romanist "League" headed? To what house did the leaders of both parties belong? What important privileges were granted to the Protestants in Bohemia? What do you mean by the term "Utraquists?" (note 1.) What letter was published by the emperor?

(115.) What war of succession broke out in 1609, how long did it rage, and by what convention was it terminated? What division was made of the territories of the late duke? In whose reign did the thirty years' war begin?

(116.) From what circumstance do you date its commencement? By what disputes was this insurrection occasioned? What act of violence was committed by the insurgents?

### a. *Bohemian Palatine period.* 1618—1623.

(117.) By whom were the Bohemian Protestants supported? Who commanded this army?

(118.) By whom was the Emperor Matthias succeeded? Whose grandson was he? By whom was his election opposed, and whom did they place on the throne? With whom, and on what grounds, did the Elector of Saxony form an alliance? By whom, and where, were the forces of Frederick routed? What were the immediate consequences of this victory? By whom, and in what manner, was the ban of the empire against Frederick carried into effect? Whom did he defeat? On whom was the vacant electorate conferred? What advantage did the Romanists derive from this appointment? What reward was given to the Elector of Saxony? In what year was the Union dissolved? What became of the Elector Palatine's library at Heidelberg?

### b. *Danish period.* 1625—1629.

(119.) By whom were hostilities recommenced? In what character did he come forward? By whom was he assisted? By what private individual was the emperor supported? Whom did he defeat? Where, and over whom, did Tilly obtain a victory? With whom did he effect a junction? For what purpose? What provinces were conquered by the two generals? On what pretence were the Dukes of Mecklenburg expelled from their dominions? What fortress refused to receive an imperial garrison? By whom were they assisted, and what success attended their resistance? For what reason, and on what terms, was a peace concluded at Lubeck? Between what parties? What pledge was given by the King of Denmark?

(120.) What compensation was given to the Elector of Bavaria

and Wallenstein? What demand was made by the emperor? By whom was he supported, and what was his object in making this demand? What intolerant decree was at the same time issued? By whom, and in conjunction with what troops, was this decree carried into effect? What was the result of these proceedings? By whom was the discontent which they excited most loudly expressed?

### c. *Swedish period.* 1630—1635.

(121.) By what favorable circumstances were the Protestants encouraged? Mention some of the causes by which Gustavus Adolphus was induced to take up arms against the emperor? With what power did he form an alliance? In what year did he land in Germany? On what part of the coast? How far did he advance? What city was invested by Tilly? By whom was he supported? What was its fate? What was Tilly's next movement? Where, and by whom, was he defeated? What ambitious design did this success suggest to the mind of Gustavus Adolphus? What plan of operations was now arranged between Gustavus and the Elector of Saxony? How was this plan carried into execution? Whom did Gustavus leave behind him when he advanced into Bavaria?

(122.) By whom was the passage of the Lech disputed, and what was his fate? Whither did Gustavus Adolphus then march? How was Wallenstein engaged at this time? What success attended his operations? Before what place, and for how long a time, did the Swedish and Imperial armies remain opposite to one another? Whither did Gustavus Adolphus return? In what direction did Wallenstein march? For what purpose? What effect had the intelligence of this movement on the plans of Gustavus? Where, and with what success, did the Swedes engage the Imperialists? What was the fate of Gustavus Adolphus? What became of Pappenheim? By whom was the prosecution of the war then undertaken? In conjunction with whom? What was Richelieu's object in thus supporting the Protestant party? What character did the war now assume?

(123.) By whom was the command of the Swedish army assumed after the death of Gustavus? How did he employ himself? Who acted as his second in command? How was Wallenstein engaged at this time? Of what conviction was this conduct the result? With what grounds of accusation were his enemies furnished? What punishment was inflicted on him by the emperor? What was his fate? By whom was he succeeded in the command of the Imperial forces? Who was his lieutenant? By whom was the new commander-in-chief supported? Where, and with what result, did he engage the two Swedish generals? What became of Bernard of Saxe Weimar and General Horn? What districts were now occupied by the imperial troops? By what sacrifice were the Protestants of South-Western Germany compelled to purchase the protection of France?

### d. *Swedish-French period.* 1634—1648.

(124.) In what spirit were negotiations set on foot by the Elector of Saxony? What was the result of those negotiations? What were the terms of this peace, and by whom were they subscribed? What act of treachery was committed by the Saxons in the following year? Where, and by whom, were they defeated?

(125.) What circumstance enabled Bernard of Saxe Weimar to recross the Rhine? Where was he victorious, and what general fell in the battle? What became of his conquests after his death? On whom did the command-in-chief of the Swedish army devolve after his death? What was the character of this general? What advantage did he gain over the Imperialists? What circumstance recalled Torstenson from Germany? Where did he obtain a victory? What reverse befell him before the walls of Vienna? Why did he resign his command? By what powers was the war now carried on on the banks of the Rhine? With what success? Who succeeded Torstenson in the command? With what general did he effect a junction? For what purpose? How far did he advance? Where was the peace of Westphalia concluded?

(126.) What were its conditions with respect to ecclesiastical matters?

(127.) What advantages were obtained respectively, by France, Sweden, Brandenburg, Mecklenburg, Hesse-Cassel, and the Elector Palatine? For whose benefit was an eighth electorate founded? What advantage was gained by Switzerland and the United Netherlands? What regulations were adopted with regard to measures of legislation, war and peace, taxation, &c.? On what conditions was the sovereignty of the princes secured to them?

### § 13. *Prussia.*

(128.) How long had the Teutonic Order governed Prussia, and what was its fate? By whom, and at what diet, was Eastern Prussia received as a temporal duchy? Of what kingdom was it to be held as a fief?

(129.) By whom was he succeeded? In what year, and by whom, was the duchy annexed to Brandenburg?

### § 14. *Scandinavia.*

(130.) Since what event had Denmark, Norway, and Sweden formed one kingdom? In what reign were the kings of the house of Oldenburg acknowledged in Sweden? By what cruel act did he endeavor to confirm his authority? What important personage escaped the massacre? By whom was he supported in his resist-

ance to the Danes? What success attended his efforts for the liberation of Sweden?

(131.) What loss was occasioned by the ambition of the house of Oldenburg? What territories did the kingdom of Denmark then comprise? By whom were they seized?

(132.) By whom, and in what manner, was the Reformation introduced into Sweden? By what acts of injustice was its introduction accompanied? By what declarations, on the part of the king, were the estates induced to grant his demands? What was the policy of Gustavus, and by whom was it fully carried out? What was the fate of this sovereign? On what plea was Sigismund deposed? By whom was he succeeded, and what great work did he complete? By whom was Charles IX. succeeded?

(133.) In what condition did he find his kingdom? With what nation, and on what terms, was a peace concluded? By whom was he succeeded? Under whose guardianship did she commence her reign? What sort of education did the young queen receive? On what terms was the peace concluded with Germany and Denmark? What circumstances occasioned the abdication of Christina? In whose favor did she abdicate? What religion did she embrace after her abdication? For what purpose did she revisit Sweden? For what crown did she become a candidate? Where did she die?

## § 15. *Poland.*

(134.) Under what dynasty did Poland become the most important state of Eastern Europe? What provinces were annexed to Poland, and what were now the limits of the kingdom? What element of dissolution existed amidst all this apparent prosperity? What concessions did they at last extort from the king?

(135.) Whom did the nobles now elect, how did he reign, and for what purposes did he quit Poland? By whom was he succeeded? What three kings followed him on the throne, and in what war did they involve Poland? By what peace was it terminated? What province was ceded to Sweden by this peace? What advantage was gained by Prussia? How long had the nominal supremacy of Poland over the Moldau been lost?

## § 16. *Russia.*

(136.) From what event do you date the advancement of Russia in power and civilization? Under what rulers? What provinces were added to her territories? What important political and military improvements were effected? With what country was a commercial treaty concluded? By what events was Russia distracted after the extinction of the race of Ruric? What advantages were gained by Poland and Sweden in these wars? In what year, and in what family, did the throne become heredi-

tary? By what sacrifice did Russia purchase peace with Poland and Sweden?

### § 17. *The Ottoman or Osmanic Empire.*

(137.) What was the extent of the empire in 1500? What countries were added to this territory by Selim I.? Under what sovereign did the Turkish power attain its highest elevation? To what quality of their commanders were his fleets and armies indebted for victory? What was their first conquest? By whom was the island garrisoned? What was the amount of the loss sustained by the Turks? Where did the knights find an asylum? How many times did Solyman visit Hungary? Describe these several expeditions? What remarkable events occurred between these campaigns? What were the limits of the Osmanic empire in the reign of Solyman? What important reforms did he effect? What was the character of his successors? By whom was the kingdom actually governed? By whom was Cyprus wrested from the Turks? In what battle was the naval power of Turkey annihilated? With what power was she engaged in an almost perpetual war?

### § 18. *Religion, Arts, Sciences, &c., during the First Period.*

(138.) To whom is the credit chiefly due of propagating Christianity among the heathen during this period? In what countries were they principally employed? Which of the orders was most conspicuous for zeal, courage, and self-denial? What institutions were founded at Rome for the promotion of such missions? By whom were they established?

(139.) What American state was founded by the missionaries? What new orders and congregations were established, and with what result? By whom, for the attainment of what object, and in what year was the Society of Jesus founded? Under the sanction of what pope? What additional vow was taken by the members of this order? What were their especial duties?

(140.) Where did the general of this order reside, and what were his powers? Over what countries did it spread, and how many countries did it eventually comprehend?

(141.) On what subject did Jansenius publish five theses? On what ground were they condemned by the pope?

(142.) What remarkable political change took place in the Germanic kingdoms?

(143.) Describe the various causes by which this effect was produced in France? In Spain? In Germany? In most of the Protestant countries? What additional advantage had the sovereign in England, Denmark, and Sweden? Mention another cause of absolutism in Sweden? By what means was the change effected generally throughout Europe?

(144.) What power was exercised by the nobles in Poland after the establishment of an elective monarchy? What form of govern-

ment existed in Italy, Switzerland, and the Netherlands? What was the system in Hungary, Russia, and Turkey?

(145.) By whom were the laws administered? Was this the case in every country of Europe? In what manner were the proceedings carried on? On what law were most of their codes founded? What atrocious cruelties were practised in Spain and Germany?

(146.) By what circumstances was the system of warfare considerably modified? To what do you attribute the more profound, as well as active, scientific investigations of this period?

(147.) In what places were universities and schools established?

(148.) What study was considered the groundwork of a learned education? In what country, and during what period, had this study been revived? In what country, and by whom was it cultivated as an independent science? Of what sciences was it also considered the handmaid? Mention the most renowned "Humanists" of Germany. What country was the great seat of classical learning? Name its most distinguished etymologists, grammarians, and critics.

(149.) What influence had the study of classical antiquity on philosophy? By what studies was the scholastic philosophy of the middle ages in a great measure supplanted? Who was the chief professor of the mystic philosophy? By what name does he call himself? How long did the struggle continue, and how many new schools did it produce? Describe these schools.

(150.) What discoveries were made by Copernicus, Keppler, and Galileo? By whom, and in what country, was the telescope invented? What were the inventions of Torricelli? What study was the groundwork of the physical sciences? Describe minutely the principles on which the calendar was reformed by Pope Gregory XIII. In what year was this alteration of the style adopted in England? [See note.]

(151.) Who were the most able expounders of political science?

(152.) To what practice do you attribute the imperfect method of treating universal history which prevailed during this period? Name some of the most distinguished writers in the department of particular history. By whom were the most celebrated memoirs written? Where, and in what year, was the earliest political journal published? Who laid the foundation of literary history, of chronology, and of numismatics?

(153.) In what part of Europe was poetry most successfully cultivated during this period? Mention the principal epic poems published during this period in Italy and Portugal. Name the most distinguished romantic and dramatic writers in Spain, France, and England. What sorts of poetry were most successfully cultivated in Germany during this period? What were the most remarkable novelties in German literature? By whom was the High German language created? To what school do you attribute the first corruption of the German language?

(154.) In what works had the modern Italian school of archi-

tecture been engaged since the fifteenth century? What models did they copy? At what period did church building assume a prominent position? Who were the most distinguished professors? What style of architecture was gradually displaced by the Italian?

(155.) Where were the most distinguished sculptors found? Who was the most renowned worker in metals?

(156.) Name the most distinguished Italian, German, and Flemish painters.

(157.) By what great composer was the Flemish school thrown into the shade? Of what school was he the founder, and what celebrated men did it produce? To what circumstance do you ascribe the formation of a better style of vocal and instrumental music?

(158.) What great revolution was effected in the commerce of the world by the discovery of America, and of a passage by sea to the East Indies? What great commercial states fell into decay in consequence of this change? What became of the German Hansa? By what circumstance were the operations of commerce greatly facilitated? To what countries did Europe now export largely? In whose hands was the East India trade at first? By what union did Spain become possessed of the trade of both hemispheres? By what country was this commerce soon shared? In what extensive undertakings were the Dutch engaged?

(159.) Enumerate the circumstances favorable to trade during this period. Mention the new products? What new trade was established?

(160.) What manufactures flourished in Spain? Mention some of the most important inventions.

## SECOND PERIOD.

### A. D. 1648—1789. FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

### § 19. *France under Louis XIV.*

(161.) How old was Louis XIV. when his father died? To whom was the guardianship of the young king intrusted? By whom were the actual functions of government discharged? By whom was this minister recommended? By what circumstances was his unpopularity increased? What was his object in engaging in a war with Germany and Spain? By what conduct had the parliament rendered itself obnoxious to the court? How did the queen avenge herself? By what circumstance was she encouraged to commit this act of violence? How were the proceedings of Condé arrested? What do you mean by the Fronde? By whom was this party headed? Against whom did they declare war? What became of the queen-mother and Mazarin? By whom was peace re-established? What conduct on the part of this general

occasioned his arrest? What part did the populace take in this dispute? What became of Mazarin?

(162.) With whom did Condé now form an alliance? Against whom did he declare war? By whom were the royal troops commanded? Where did Condé seek an asylum? What became of Mazarin after the overthrow of Condé?

(163.) Give an account of the termination of the war by the peace of Westphalia.

(164.) When did the war with Spain break out? After what battle was it terminated? By what peace? By whom was this peace negotiated? What territories did France acquire by this peace? What honors were conferred on Condé? Whom did Louis XIV. marry? What claims did she renounce for herself and heirs?

(165.) What declaration was made by Louis XIV. immediately after the death of Mazarin?

(166.) To what objects were the attempts of Louis XIV. directed? How was the first of these objects effected? By what means did he endeavor to establish an independent authority in ecclesiastical matters? How was his second object attained? To what office was Colbert appointed? What improvements were effected under his administration? What public institutions did he found? How was his third object achieved? Who was Louvois, and what was his policy?

(167.) Against what country was the first war of spoliation carried on? What law was brought forward by Louis XIV. after the death of his father-in-law? To what territories did he lay claim in consequence of this law? Between what powers was an alliance formed at this time? What was their object? What peace was Louis XIV. compelled to conclude? On what terms?

(168.) Against what country was his second war of spoliation undertaken? What was his motive for undertaking this war? Whom did Louis XIV. gain over? How was he restrained from conquering the whole of Holland? By what circumstances were the French and English prevented from landing? By whom was assistance now promised to the Dutch republic? Through whose influence? With what powers did the republic conclude an alliance? What embarrassment did this occasion to France? With whom did the King of England conclude a peace? What were his reasons for terminating the war? Where and with what result was a battle fought? What was the fate of Turenne? What attempt was made by the Swedes, and how far did it succeed? Where were they defeated, and what loss did they sustain in consequence of this defeat? By what admiral was the French fleet defeated? What peace was now concluded by Louis? On what terms? Under what circumstances was the Elector of Brandenburg compelled to conclude peace? On what terms was the peace of St. Germain-en-Laye concluded?

(169.) Under whose administration, and by how many treaties had France considerably augmented her territories? For what purpose were the re-union chambers established? What was the

result of this inquiry? What fortresses were occupied by the French? How was the emperor engaged at this time? At whose instigation did Louis XIV. revoke the edict of Nantes? What was the immediate effect of this measure?

(170.) How did Louis XIV. commence the third war of spoliation? What Turkish fortress had previously fallen into the hands of the Imperialists? Of what capitals did Louis take possession? By what act of violence was this violation of the law of nations followed? Name the German towns which were destroyed by the French.

(171.) Who was King of England at this time? With whom and against what power did England form an alliance? On what pretence? How did the war by sea commence? How did it conclude? Name the three victories gained by Luxembourg. What advantage was obtained by General Catinat? Mention the causes which hastened the conclusion of peace at Ryswick. On what terms was this peace concluded?

### § 20. *Germany.*

(172.) By whom was Ferdinand III. succeeded? Of what countries was he already king? What concessions was he obliged to make? Name the two corporations into which the estates of the empire had been divided since the peace of Westphalia? What change took place in the constitution of the diet? To what condition was the German empire now reduced? To what circumstance do you attribute this change?

(173.) In what manner did the Turks take advantage of the absence of Louis XIV.? By what acts of cruelty was the Hungarian insurrection occasioned? By whom was it headed? At whose instigation had the sultan declared war against Austria?

(174.) By whom were the Turks commanded, and how far did they advance? Where was the emperor at this time? By whom was the capital defended? What number of men had he, and what was the amount of the Turkish force? To whom was Vienna chiefly indebted for its preservation? What question was agitated after the capture of Belgrade? What circumstances prevented the expulsion of the Turks from Europe? In consequence of what victories was peace concluded? What were the conditions of this treaty? Why was Venice rewarded?

(175.) In what year was Hungary made an hereditary monarchy? On what family was the crown settled? To whom did the Tyrol and Transylvania belong? For what reason was Hanover erected into a ninth electorate?

(176.) What dignity was conferred on the Elector of Saxony? In what manner had he previously qualified himself for the office?

(177.) To what rank was the Elector of Brandenburg elevated?

§ 21. *Brandenburg and Prussia to* 1701.

(178.) Out of what provinces did the great elector form a state? By whom was this state raised to a high rank among German governments? Under whom did it become a first-rate power? By what means was this eminent position attained?

(179.) By whom was the possession of the Swedish throne contested?

(180.) To whom did both parties appeal? What advantage did the elector take of this circumstance? With whom did he form an alliance? Where, and with what success, did the united armies engage the Poles? By what treaty was the independence of Prussia finally established? By whom was this recognition opposed? Why were they adverse to the measure?

(181.) Who laid the foundation of Prussia's future greatness?

(182.) What military force did he establish?

(183.) In what manner did he raise funds for the maintenance of this army? What reform did he effect in the financial administration?

(184.) Describe the manner in which he established military colonies.

(185.) How was inland navigation facilitated? Where were settlements established, and did they answer the expectation of their founders? To what cause do you chiefly attribute the improvement in manufactures?

(186.) What literary institutions did he establish?

(187.) Against whom did Frederick III. assist the Austrians? In what manner did the emperor recompense those services? What public buildings were erected in this reign, at Berlin and elsewhere? What consideration induced the emperor to recognize Frederick III. as king of Prussia? When and where was he crowned, and what order was founded in commemoration of that event?

§ 22. *Great Britain and Ireland.*

(188.) What changes were made in the English constitution immediately after the execution of Charles I.? Why did Cromwell attack the Irish? Was the title of Charles II. recognized in any other part of the British dominions? Where did Cromwell defeat the Scotch? What attempt was made by Charles during the absence of Cromwell in Scotland? Where was the king defeated, and what course was he compelled to adopt after that battle?

(189.) In what manner, and for what offence, did the new Commonwealth avenge itself on Holland?

(190.) What measures were now adopted by Cromwell? On the support of what body did he reckon with certainty? From whom did the parliament derive its nickname? What title was now given to Cromwell by his officers?

(191.) In whom was the executive authority vested? How often was the parliament called together, and what authority did

it possess? To whom did the management of the army belong? What circumstance occasioned a war between England and the united Netherlands? What proceeding on the part of Cromwell produced a war with Spain? What territories were acquired by England in this war? Describe the manner in which parliament was prepared for the question of offering the crown to the protector? Was the offer accepted or declined? When did Cromwell die? To what do you in a great measure attribute his death? By whom was he succeeded? How long did he reign? What measure was he compelled to adopt? By whom and in what manner was the state of anarchy terminated?

(192.) What measures were adopted by Charles II. on his accession? Whom did he appoint prime minister? How did he disgust the people? What political acts especially excited the indignation of his subjects? By whom was Clarendon's place supplied? What do you mean by the Cabal? [See note.] By whose authority was an act of toleration passed? By whom was it repealed? What was the effect of the Test Act? What privilege was secured to the king's subjects by the Habeas Corpus Act? By what circumstance was the Whig party brought into collision with the Tories?

(193.) In what manner did Charles govern during the last years of his reign? Did he support or oppose the exclusion of his brother from the succession? By whom was Charles II. succeeded? What plans did he eagerly pursue? To what grievances do you ascribe the discontents which terminated in the English Revolution? From what event may its commencement be dated?

(194.) Explain the pedigree of the houses of Stuart and Hanover.

(195.) Who was invited over by the malcontents? In consequence of what proceeding on the part of James was the throne declared vacant? In what year were the new king and queen proclaimed? By what act was the authority of the crown limited? Who was appointed their successor in the event of their dying without issue?

(196.) By what decisive victories were the hopes of James II. annihilated? How were the Irish punished for their support of James? By what measure was peace in some degree restored in Scotland? What improvements were effected in the constitution? What dignity was William permitted to retain? What was his policy during the Spanish war of succession?

### § 23. *The Republic of Holland.*

(197.) By what name was the republic of Holland generally distinguished? At what period had it reached its highest state of prosperity? By what peace was its independence secured? Mention the chief sources of its wealth. By what measure was its carrying trade ruined? What was the result of two wars with England? What Dutch admirals distinguished themselves in

these wars? Were there any other causes of decay? What important office was abolished immediately after the death of William II.? Did any of the provinces retain their stattholder? When was the office re-established? On whom was the dignity conferred? For how long a period? Who were the brothers de Witt, and what was their fate? At whose instigation was this atrocious act perpetrated?

(198.) What advantage did Holland gain by the marriage of William III. with an English princess? How was this advantage neutralized? By what circumstances was the affection of his Dutch subjects towards William considerably weakened? What circumstance occasioned the restoration of the hereditary stattholdership? How long had it been in abeyance? What was the foreign policy of the republic during the interval between the Spanish and Austrian war of succession?

### § 24. *The north-east of Europe.*

(199.) What position did Sweden occupy in northern Europe under the three first kings of the house of Sweibrücken? From what period do you date her elevation to the rank of a first-rate power?

(200.) What circumstance afforded Charles a pretext for declaring war against Poland? In what battle did he defeat the Poles? Who was at that time king of Poland, and what became of him? For what purpose was a confederation formed about this time? Against what power did the King of Denmark declare war? What measures were adopted by Charles X. in consequence of this declaration? What were the conditions of the peace of Roeskild? By whom were these conditions violated? What city did he attack, and with what success? By whom were the Danes assisted? What circumstances induced the Swedish government to conclude a peace with Poland? What were the conditions of this peace? Did the Swedes conclude a peace with any other power? Of what peace did it confirm the conditions? What places were restored to Denmark? What conduct on the part of the Swedes occasioned the loss of their German possessions? After what battle? When were most of these possessions restored to Sweden? What vigorous policy was adopted by Charles XI. after he had attained full age? How did he employ this additional revenue? By whom was he succeeded? What was the result of the new sovereign's policy? What change took place in the Danish constitution? By whom, and in what year, was this change effected? On what grounds did the Danes recommence hostilities against Sweden? Did they retain their conquests?

(201.) Describe the constitution of Poland at this period? Who was the last king of the house of Vasa, and why did he resign his crown? To what country did he retire, and how was he supported there? Who was John Sobieski? With whom, and against what power, did he form an alliance? What siege did he

compel them to raise? In whose reign was the Turkish war terminated? Where, and through the intervention of what power, was peace concluded? Describe the progress of Russian civilization under the house of Romanow. By whom was the Ukraine wrested from the Turks? Who were raised together to the throne after his death? What was the character of each of these princes? Under whose guardianship were they placed? What treacherous policy was pursued by this princess? What was its result? What punishment was inflicted on Sophia? What authority was assumed by Peter, and what changes did he effect in the administration of affairs? Who enjoyed the title of czar? By whom were the counsels of Peter directed? What improvements were effected in the organization of the army? What important seaport was wrested from the Turks? What countries did Peter visit, and for what purpose? What occurrence prevented his visiting Italy? Who was King of England when Peter visited that country? How were the Strelitzes punished for their treason? On what footing was the Russian army then placed? What ecclesiastical office did Peter usurp? What project involved him in the great northern war?

### § 25. *War of the Spanish succession.*

(202.) By whom, and on what grounds respectively, was the succession to the Spanish throne claimed? Whom had Charles II. declared his heir? Who was nominated on the decease of this prince? With what view did Charles make this arrangement? By whom was the title of King of Spain assumed soon after Charles's death? By what powers, and for what purpose, was the grand alliance concluded? To what conditions did they pledge themselves? Which of the German princes was the first to join this alliance? With whom did the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne take part?

(203.) By what German princes was the emperor supported? What were their reasons for thus supporting him? Under whose command did he dispatch an army to dispute the passage of the Rhine with the French? Who commanded the army of Italy? Where had he already distinguished himself? By what French general had Italy been already entered? Whom did Eugene defeat, and why was he at last compelled to retire?

(204.) By what conduct, on the part of the French king, was the English parliament induced to grant supplies for carrying on a war in the Spanish Netherlands? Who commanded the English troops? By what powers was the Grand Alliance joined at the same time? What successful manœuvre had been carried into effect in the mean time by the French army on the Rhine? With whom had Villars effected a junction?

(205.) By whom was the elector's plan of entering the Tyrol frustrated? For what purpose did Marlborough effect a junction with Eugene at the commencement of the year 1704? What stations were then assigned to the two armies respectively? By what

circumstance was Eugene compelled to rejoin Marlborough? What great battle was fought by the allies? Against whom, and with what success? How were the inhabitants of Bavaria treated by the conquerors? What punishment did the emperor inflict on the electors of Bavaria and Cologne? How was the Elector Palatine rewarded?

(206.) In what year did the war begin in Spain? By whom was a descent made on the coast of Portugal? What important event occurred in the first year of the war? From what circumstances do you date the commencement of the Spanish civil war? What was its character? Between what provinces did the war continue after the return of Philip IV. to his capital? What advantage was gained by the latter? What circumstances enabled Charles to drive Philip out of Madrid? By whom was Charles compelled to fly? To what country did he return?

(207.) How had Marlborough and Eugene disposed of their forces after the battle of Höchstädt? What successes attended the operations of the allies in Bavaria and the Netherlands? At what courts had Marlborough distinguished himself as a diplomatist? Where did he defeat the French? By whom was their army commanded? What provinces did he subdue? To whom did he compel those provinces to swear allegiance? Where did Eugene defeat a French army in the autumn of the same year? By whom was he assisted? What was the amount of the French force? What advantage did the allies gain by this victory? To what office was Eugene nominated by the Emperor, and what use did he make of his authority? How did the Neapolitans receive a detachment of the allied army? Of what island did the English take possession in 1708? What now remained to the Spaniards of all their European possessions? Whither did Eugene march after the termination of the war in Italy? Where, and in conjunction with whom, did he defeat the French? What fortress did he storm? By what celebrated engineer had it been constructed? What circumstances induced Louis XIV. to sue for peace? What conditions did he propose? By what unreasonable demand, on the part of the allies, were the negotiations broken off? By whom was his newly raised army commanded? Where, and by whom, was this general defeated?

(208.) By the occurrence of what events was the aspect of affairs entirely changed? On what terms was Louis now enabled to conclude peace? With whom was the peace of Utrecht concluded? Who was recognized as king of Spain by this peace? What stipulation was at the same time made?

(209.) What important concessions did England obtain from France and Spain? What was gained by Prussia? For what island did Savoy exchange Sicily? Between what parties, and in what year, was the treaty of Rastadt concluded? What provinces did the emperor receive? What princes were reinstated in their dignities? Between what generals had this treaty been negotiated? At what peace was it fully recognized? What treaties were confirmed by this peace?

§ 26. *The northern war.*

(210.) Enumerate the causes of this war. At whose instance was a league formed between Russia and Denmark? What was its object?

(211.) With what acts of aggression did the Danish war begin? What advantages were gained by Charles XII.? With whom, and where, did he conclude a separate peace? On what conditions?

(212.) To whose assistance had the Czar Peter marched? What siege was he compelled to raise by Charles XII.? What conquests were then achieved by Charles? Whom were the Poles compelled to elect as their king in the place of Augustus II.? Of what circumstances was his general recognition the result? What imprudent act was committed at this time by Charles XII.? In what year, and where, did Peter found his new capital? What were the conditions of the peace of Altranstädt? What punishment was inflicted on the instigator of the war?

(213.) Through whose obstinacy were the fruits of these brilliant successes lost? For what purpose had the czar entered Poland? What design was conceived by Charles XII. after the expulsion of the czar from Poland? Who was Mazeppa, and what advice did he give to Charles? What force did Charles bring into the field at Pultowa? What was the amount of the Russian force? What was the result? In what city did Charles take refuge after his defeat?

(214.) How long did Charles XII. reside at Bender? What opportunity was afforded by his absence to the Poles and Danes? What declaration was made by Augustus II., and how was it followed up? What advantage was gained by the Danes? What conquests were achieved by Peter during the absence of his enemy? With what plans did he at the same time proceed? By whom was the sultan persuaded to declare war against Peter? From what danger was Peter rescued with difficulty? On what conditions did he obtain peace? What happened to Charles at Bender after his refusal to quit the Turkish territory? In what year did he return to Sweden?

(215.) By what sovereigns were the enemies of Sweden now joined? What loss was sustained by the Swedes? How was Peter I. employed at this time? What country did Charles XII. now invade? What was the result of the first campaign? Where, and in what manner, did Charles XII. lose his life? Who succeeded him on the throne? What concessions were made by this sovereign? Into whose hands did the queen afterwards resign the reins of government? With what view were further concessions made by the king?

(216.) By what treaties was the war terminated? What territories were acquired respectively by Hanover, Prussia, Denmark, and Russia? What was the position of Sweden at this time? What indulgence was granted to Stanislaus Lesczinsky?

### § 27. *The Emperor Charles VI.*

(217.) What important possession was wrested from Venice by the Turks? Why did they declare war against Charles VI.? By whom, and where, were they defeated? What great Turkish officer lost his life? What advantages were gained by Eugene after this victory? What were the conditions of the peace concluded between the emperor and the Turks? What province had Charles fruitlessly endeavored to recover for Venice?

(218.) What was the state of affairs in Spain at this time? What plan was devised by Cardinal Alberoni, and how did he attempt to carry it into execution? Between what parties was the quadruple alliance concluded? What was its chief object? What concessions did it extort from Philip? What became of Alberoni? How was Philip in some degree recompensed for these concessions? What exchange of territory was effected between the Emperor and Savoy?

(219.) Why did Charles VI. publish the pragmatic sanction? Whom did he declare heiress of the Austrian states? What was the grand object of his government during the remainder of his life?

(220.) Who persuaded the Polish nobles to restore Stanislaus Lesczinsky? By whom was the Elector of Saxony supported? What became of Stanislaus? What princes declared war against the emperor in consequence of his expulsion? What countries were occupied by the allies? In what year, and where, was a peace at last concluded? What indemnification did Stanislaus receive for the renunciation of his claims to the crown of Poland? On whom was the grand duchy of Tuscany settled? By the extinction of what house had it become vacant? On whom was the crown of the two Sicilies bestowed? What territories did he relinquish to the emperor?

(221.) Of what Turkish province did the Empress Anne take possession? By whom and at what peace had it been ceded to the Turks?

(222.) Explain the genealogical table of the house of Bourbon in France, Spain, the two Sicilies, and Parma.

(223.) By whom and in how many engagements were the armies of the Emperor Charles defeated? To what circumstance do you attribute these defeats? What concessions were made to the Porte at the peace of Belgrade by the Austrians and the Empress Anne of Russia?

### § 28. *Prussia under her two First Kings.*

(224.) Of what territories did Frederick I. become possessed after the death of William III. of England? By what states, and after the extinction of what house, was he recognized as heir of the house of Nassau-Chalons-Orange?

(225.) What was the character of Frederick William I.? What was his only expensive amusement.

(226.) What amount of treasure was amassed by Frederick William? What sort of an army did he leave to his successor? What improvements did he effect? What indemnification did he receive at the peace of Utrecht? For what sacrifice? What territories did he acquire by the peace of Stockholm? On what terms did he live with his son Frederick? For what offence was Frederick imprisoned at Küstrin? What punishment was inflicted on his accomplice Katte? By whose intercession was Frederick himself rescued from death? In consequence of what marriage was he reconciled to his father? Where did he reside until his accession in 1740? Who was his favorite associate?

§ 29. *War of the Austrian succession, and the two first Silesian wars.*

(227.) By whom was the accession of Maria Theresa opposed? On what grounds? By whom were they supported?

(228.) What ancient claim was revived by Frederick the Great? What war was occasioned by the refusal of Maria Theresa to recognize these claims?

(229.) What country was conquered at the commencement of the war? In what battle were the Prussian troops victorious? Through whose skill and valor? What countries did Frederick overrun in the following year? Where did he gain a second victory? What increase of territory did he obtain at the peace of Breslau? What advantage did the empress gain by these concessions? By whom was Charles Albert supported? Of what countries did he assume the sovereignty? What assistance did Maria Theresa receive from England and Holland? What effect was produced by her appearance at the Hungarian diet? Of what countries did they recover possession? Out of what country was Charles VII. driven by the Austrians? Where was Maria Theresa proclaimed? Of what nations was the pragmatic army composed? By whom was it commanded? In what battle did it defeat the French? What fresh alliance was produced by these events? Why did Frederick II. join the confederacy?

(230.) What country did Frederick invade at the commencement of the second Silesian war? What name did he give to his troops? Of what country did the Imperialists regain possession at the same time? By whom was Charles VII. succeeded on the imperial throne? Who had previously renounced all claim to the Austrian succession? For what purpose was England compelled to withdraw her troops from the continent? Where had the Pretender landed? In what power did Austria find a new ally? What advantage had been gained by Prince Charles of Lorraine? By whom and where was he afterwards defeated? What plan was rendered abortive by the victory of Kesselsdorf? What advantage did Frederick gain by the peace of Dresden? Of what country had the French in the mean time obtained possession? By whom was their army commanded? What provinces remained unconquered? By what forces was the war in Italy prosecuted? With what result? By what sovereign was an army dispatched to the

Rhine in 1748? On what terms was peace concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle?

§ 30. *The Third Silesian; or, Seven Years' War.*

(231.) What was the policy of Maria Theresa after the peace of Dresden? Who was her adviser? What representation had she made to the Empress of Russia? What was the substance of the secret treaty concluded between the two empresses? Was any other court a party to this treaty? Who was prime minister at this court? What misunderstanding occasioned a war between England and France? Why did England conclude an alliance with Frederick of Prussia? With what power did Austria ally herself? What was her object in forming this alliance?

(232.) How did Frederick anticipate the movements of his enemies? To what city did he lay siege? Where did he blockade the Saxon army? With what force and where did he defeat the enemy? Why did he divide his forces? Where did he pass the winter? What became of the Saxon troops blockaded at Pirna?

(233.) What circumstance compelled the French to conclude an alliance against Prussia? With what powers was the alliance concluded? Did any other power become a party to this treaty? With what view? To whom did Frederick now leave the duty of keeping the French at bay? Against whom did he advance? What support did Austria receive from the other powers? What amount of force was brought into the field by the Austrians and Prussians respectively? What generals were defeated in the battle of Prague? What Prussian officer of rank lost his life in the battle? Where did the greater part of the defeated army take refuge? Where and by whom was Frederick for the first time defeated? What course did this check compel him to adopt? With whom were the French engaged at the battle of Hastenbeck? What was the result of that battle? Who commanded the allies of Frederick? Did the French avail themselves of the advantage which they had gained? Between whom and with what result was the battle of Grossjagerndorf fought? Which party was victorious in the battle of Rossbach? To whom was Frederick mainly indebted for this victory? How was he prevented from forming a junction with the Duke of Bevern? What fortresses fell into the hands of the conqueror? With what amount of force did Frederick attempt the reconquest of Silesia? How many men had the Austrians? What was the event of the battle of Leuthen? What important advantage did Frederick gain by this victory? How was the king employed during the winter? Against whom was the campaign of 1758 carried on in the east and west? Who commanded the Prussians and their allies? How did the Duke of Brunswick open the campaign? Which party was victorious at the battle of Crefeld?

(234.) To what circumstance do you attribute this disaster as well as the other failures of the French? What important fortress now fell into the hands of the Prussians? For what purpose did

Frederick march into Moravia? Why did he return to Silesia? Where did he attack the Russians, and with what result? To whom was he mainly indebted for this victory? What disaster befell Frederick at Hochkirch? Did this misfortune produce any further results?

(235.) Enumerate the circumstances which compelled Frederick to confine himself to a defensive war in 1759. What operations were carried on by the Russians on the bank of the Oder? Where did Frederick attack the Russians, and with what success? Who changed the fortune of the day? What distinguished poet fell in this battle? What advice was given by Laudon to the conqueror? What reason had he in all probability for not adopting this course? By what disputes was the prosecution of the war retarded? How was Frederick relieved from all apprehension of an attack on his eastern frontier? To whom were the fortresses in Saxony surrendered? What disaster befell General Fink? By whom and where was Duke Frederick of Brunswick defeated at the commencement of the campaign? By what victory was this disgrace afterwards obliterated?

(236.) What misfortune befell the Prussian troops at the commencement of the year 1760? What city did Frederick ineffectually attempt to reduce? What fortress did he surrender to the Austrians? Where did he encamp, and why did he shift his quarters? Where and with what result did he engage Laudon? How was he enabled to rescue Silesia? To whom was Frederick in a great measure indebted for his victory at Torgau? What were the consequences of this victory? For what purpose was the war prosecuted in the west?

(237.) By what events were the hopes of peace destroyed in 1761? What heavy loss was sustained by Frederick at this time?

(238.) By what event was Frederick unexpectedly extricated from his difficulties? What assistance did he receive from Peter II.? How long did this emperor reign, and what was his fate? By whom was he succeeded? What battle was fought previously to the withdrawal of the Russian troops from Silesia? Who was defeated in that battle? What important event occurred between the date of this battle and the conclusion of peace? Where, between what parties, and on what terms was peace concluded? What rank was now assigned to Prussia?

§ 31. *The Emperor Joseph II.*, 1765—1790. *Frederick the Great after the Seven Years' War.*

(239.) Who succeeded Augustus III. on the throne of Poland? By whom was he elected, and at whose instigation? What privileges were granted to the Protestants and members of the Greek Church? By whose advice? What was the immediate effect of these concessions? Between what parties was this civil war carried on? Between what nations did a war break out soon afterwards? Which of these parties was generally victorious? Mention some of the important advantages gained by them. What

measures were adopted by Austria in consequence of this aggrandizement of Russia? Under what pretence was this example followed by Prussia? What plan was at length adopted for preserving the balance of power?

(240.) Among what powers was Poland divided, and what provinces did each receive? What province did Prussia recover? Of how great a portion of the kingdom was the king deprived by this arrangement?

(241.) Who took possession of the Bavarian dominions after the death of the last elector? On what were his claims founded? Whose claims to a portion of this territory were allowed by the Elector Palatine? By whom was this compact disputed? On whose advice did he act? At what peace. and in consequence of what circumstances, did the emperor withdraw his claim on Bavaria? Did he retain any portion? What advantage did Austria gain by the annexation of this territory?

(242.) What was the character of Maria Theresa? With whom had she shared her throne? In whose hands had the reins of government virtually remained? For what benefits was Austria indebted to this sovereign? How was she enabled to maintain her position among the European powers? What plans were brought forward by Joseph II. immediately after his mother's death? What was the character of this new monarch? To what cause may we attribute the failure of most of his plans? Give one or two instances. What was the ground of his quarrel with Pope Pius VI.? How did he treat the remonstrances of the pope? Were his plans afterwards modified? What was his favorite scheme, and what proposal did he make for the purpose of carrying it into effect? By whose advice was this proposal made? What promise was made to the elector? By whom was this proposal rejected? Under whose auspices was a confederation formed in 1785, and of what sovereigns did it consist? What was its object? What name was given to this confederation? Was the number of its members ever increased?

(243.) For how long a period did Frederick II. maintain peace? What measures did he adopt for securing to Prussia the rank which she had recently assumed among European nations? How was this force supported? What important reforms did he effect? How long did Frederick reign? Give a sketch of his character. In what particulars was he worthy of censure? What was his greatest protection against the designs of other governments? How did Frederick pass his leisure hours? To what circumstance do you ascribe his preference of the French language?

(244.) When did Frederick II. die, and by whom was he succeeded? What provinces had he annexed to Prussia? What amount of treasure did he leave to his successor? What number of soldiers? What title had he assumed since the annexation of West Prussia?

(245.) By what people were the political and ecclesiastical reforms of Joseph II. opposed? By whom were they headed? What was the result of this opposition? Under what circum-

stances, and in whose reign did the revolted provinces return to their allegiance? By whom, and in conjunction with what ally, was a Turkish war undertaken? With what results? By whom and on what terms was peace concluded?

### § 32. *France.*

(246.) In what sort of difficulties was France involved by the wars of Louis XIV?

(247.) By whom was he succeeded? Under whose guardianship did he commence his reign? By whose advice was a bank of issue established? What joint-stock company was established at the same time? What grant did the king make to this company? What circumstance occasioned the bankruptcy of the company?

(248.) In what year, and after whose death, did Louis assume the reins of government? Whom did he marry? To whom did he leave the entire management of affairs? What was the effect of this minister's policy? How did the first Austrian war of succession end? To what do you ascribe the inauspicious commencement of the second war? How were these losses repaired? By what favorite was the king now governed? Through whose influence was a treaty concluded with the court of Vienna, and what was its effect on French politics? In what war was France involved through this alliance? Was she engaged in any other war at the same time? How long did it continue, and how did it terminate? Of what persons was the so-called school of philosophers composed? and what effect had their teaching on the morals of the French people? What was their grand object, and how was it advanced? What other name had these philosophers? In conjunction with whom did they obtain an ordonnance from the king? For the suppression of what order? On what grounds? By whom was Louis governed towards the close of his life? What effect had her extravagance on the exchequer?

(249.) By whom was Louis XV. succeeded? What was the character of this monarch? State at length the causes to which we may ascribe the outbreak of the French Revolution. To what circumstances do you attribute the large annual deficit in the public accounts?

### § 33. *Great Britain.*

(250.) By whom was William III. succeeded? By what political party was her policy dictated during the greater part of her reign? Who were her most influential advisers? On what terms was the union between England and Scotland accomplished? By whom were the attempts of Anne to obtain the settlement of the crown on her step-brother frustrated? On what ground did they oppose the wishes of the queen?

(251.) What family did they place on the throne after her death? Who was the first sovereign of this dynasty? How was he related to the house of Stuart? Who was his prime minister? Whom did George II. retain as his prime minister? Of what opportunity did France avail herself for a last attempt to restore the Stuarts? Where was the pretender defeated? Why did George II. send an army into Germany? What war was at the same time carried on by England? Where had this war broken out in the first instance? In consequence of what dispute? By whom was the superiority of the British arms restored? Mention one of the most important victories gained by the British in America. Between what courts was a treaty concluded? For what purpose? Who succeeded George II.?

(252.) Why did Pitt resign his office? What important accession of territory did Great Britain obtain at the peace of Paris? Did she acquire any other provinces?

(253.) State the condition of England, and how brought about. What part had the colonies in the matter? What had they contributed, and to what extent? What control had the mother country exercised? What new claim was now set up? What measures were attempted? How did the colonists act? What other duties were attempted to be imposed? What was done with the cargoes of tea? What did England do? Where and when did the first Congress assemble? When and where did hostilities commence? What were the original thirteen United States? When was independence declared? Who commanded the American troops? What was his military character? In what war had he already distinguished himself? Through whose exertions was an alliance concluded between France and America? What powers afterwards became parties to this league? At whose instigation, and for what purpose, did the northern powers form a league? By whom were they supported?

(254.) Into what quarters of the world was the war carried in consequence of these movements? What proposal was made by the English government, and why was it refused? How many engagements were fought? What great naval battles were fought, and what was the result? How were the attempts of the Spaniards and French to retake Gibraltar frustrated? What places were taken by the English? By whom and in what battle was the event of the American war decided? Where and in what year was peace concluded? To what terms was England compelled to submit? What sacrifice of territory was made by the Dutch? What was the condition of the United States at the close of the war? When was the Federal Constitution adopted? In whom is the legislative authority vested? The judicial? The executive? Who was the first president? When and where inaugurated?

(255.) What attempts were made by European nations in India? From what events do you date the commencement of these attempts? Of what province had England obtained possession? Through whose victories? Between what Indian powers

was a league formed against Great Britain? With whom did the French conclude an alliance at the same time? Through whose prudence and energy was the supremacy of the East India Company maintained at this crisis? Who was Tippoo Sahib? Under what circumstances was he compelled to purchase peace? By what sacrifices?

(256.) Under what circumstances, and by whom was the East India bill brought forward? What were its provisions? By whose discoveries was an addition made to the colonial possessions of England? How often did he sail around the world? What coast did he visit in his first voyage? What countries did he discover in the second? How far did he penetrate, and in what expectation was he disappointed? What straits did he survey in his third voyage, and what was his fate?

### § 34. *Spain under the Bourbons, from* 1701.

(257.) What possessions were given up by Spain at the peace of Utrecht? By whom were attempts made to recover them? How were these attempts frustrated? To whom did the two Sicilies revert? At the close of what war? On whom was Parma settled? Under what sovereign was the nation deprived of its constitutional privileges? Were any provinces excepted? In what war was Charles III. involved? In consequence of what compact? Against what powers had he been unsuccessful? What province was he compelled to cede at the peace of Paris? When did he recover it? What fortified places did he attack, and with what success? Why were the Jesuits expelled from the Spanish dominions?

### § 35. *Portugal under the house of Braganza, from* 1640.

(258) What was the condition of Portugal under the first kings of the house of Braganza? What colonies did she recover? To what circumstance do you attribute her decline? By whom was her commercial system reformed?

(259.) What measures did he adopt for the protection of native industry? By what calamity had a portion of Lisbon been destroyed? When was it restored? How was money raised to meet these expenses? What occurrence afforded the minister an excuse for banishing the Jesuits? By whom was Joseph I. succeeded? How did she treat Pombal? Which of the ordonnances issued during his administration remained in force?

### § 36. *Italy.*

(260.) What countries continued to be dependencies of Spain as long as the throne of that country was occupied by the family of Hapsburg? To what power were they ceded at the peace of Utrecht? What became of Sicily?

(261.) When and under whom did the kingdom of the two Sicilies regain its independence? What calamity befell Calabria and Sicily in 1783?

(262.) What accession of territory did Savoy obtain at the peace of Utrecht? For what island was she compelled to exchange it? By the addition of what provinces were her territories subsequently augmented? Of what country did Austria become a province? To what family did Modena remain subject? On whom were Parma and Piacenza settled? After the extinction of what family? To what country were they afterwards annexed? To whom were the duchies restored at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle?

(263.) Of what island was Venice deprived by the Turks? What provinces did she obtain from them at the peace of Carlowitz? What insurrection was suppressed by Genoa? With the assistance of what power? By whom was the insurrection headed? What became of him? By whom was a subsequent insurrection headed? What step was taken by the Genoese senate in consequence of this insurrection? What became of Paoli? What attempt did he make at a later period, and by whom was he assisted?

(364.) To whom did the grand duchy of Tuscany descend after the extinction of the Medici family? Of what family did it afterwards become a possession? On whom was the grand duchy settled, when Joseph II. was elected Roman king?

(265.) What provinces were recovered by the states of the Church?

## § 37. *Denmark.*

(266.) What countries belonged to Denmark? What provinces were subsequently acquired? From what date, and during how many years, did Denmark enjoy peace? Under what sovereigns? Under whose administration did Denmark become a flourishing kingdom? By whom, and in what reign, was this minister supplanted? What was his fate? By what arrangement were the disputes terminated between Denmark and the ducal line of Gottorp? On whom was the duchy of Oldenburg settled? What province was annexed to Denmark at the same time?

## § 38. *Sweden.*

(267.) What was the condition of Sweden at the close of the northern war? By what names were the factions distinguished? What attempt occasioned the loss of a portion of Finland? Who was the first king of the house of Holstein-Gottorp? How were the powers of the crown restricted in his reign? By what expenditure was the exchequer drained? By whom was this aristocratic tyranny successfully resisted? In whom was the executive authority now vested? How were his powers limited? To what combination of favorable circumstances do you attribute the popu-

larity of this sovereign? By whom was he perseveringly opposed? What alliance did he renew? What was his probable motive for this irregular proceeding?

(268.) What act did he persuade the diet to pass? In consequence of what opposition? How did the war terminate? What was the fate of Gustavus III.?

### § 39. *Russia.*

(269.) What city was built by Peter the Great during the northern war? How was it peopled? To what rank was it elevated? By whom were his reforms resisted? Who was at the head of this movement? What punishment was inflicted on him? What title did Peter assume after the war? What law was passed in 1722? In what year did Peter die? What was the immediate cause of his death? By whom was he succeeded? What was the name of her favorite? Who succeeded her? By whom and in what manner was the foundation laid of Russian influence in Poland? Who were her ministers? In what war did she join Austria? Who was the commander-in-chief of the Russian forces, and by what name was he distinguished? To what circumstance do you ascribe the inglorious termination of the war? Was any advantage gained by Russia? By whom was Anne succeeded? How long did he reign, and in favor of whom was he set aside?

### § 40. *The houses of Romanow and Holstein-Gottorp, in Russia.*

(270.) Give the pedigree of these houses.

(271.) What punishment did Elizabeth inflict on the ministers of the late sovereign? Under whose guidance did she then place herself? What became of him? By what peace was the war with Sweden terminated? What accession of territory did Elizabeth obtain by this peace? By what act on the part of the Russian government was the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle hastened? By what personal feelings were the bonds of Elizabeth's union with Austria strengthened during the seven years' war? Whom did Elizabeth nominate as her successor?

(272.) Of what monarch was Peter III. a personal friend? With what power did he conclude an alliance? With what reforms did he commence his reign? How long did he reign, and what was his fate?

(273.) By whom was he succeeded? What great sovereign did she choose as her model? Whom did she place on the throne of Poland? Between what parties did her policy excite a civil war? By whom was the king supported? Which of the European powers declared war against Catherine? On what grounds?

(274.) Which of the two belligerents was for the most part successful in this war? From what cause? When and by whom was the Turkish fleet destroyed? Through whose mediation was an armistice concluded? What circumstance occasioned a re-

newal of the war? By what troubles was the Russian empire at this time distracted? Where was a peace concluded? What favorable occurrence enabled the Russians to negotiate this peace? On what terms was it concluded? What benefits did Catherine confer on Poland after the first partition of that kingdom? Who was the principal favorite of Catherine, and what was his character? To what rank had he been raised by Joseph II.? For how many years and in what manner did he exercise his authority?

(275.) What projects occupied the attention of Catherine after the first Turkish war? How was the first of these projects promoted? What was the first step taken by Potemkin towards the accomplishment of the second plan? By whom had it been devised? What deception did Potemkin practise, and by what nickname was he distinguished in consequence? Between what sovereigns did a meeting take place during this progress? What was the immediate consequence of this meeting? By what powers was the Porte supported?

(276.) By whom and in how many battles were the Turks defeated? After what event was peace concluded between Austria and the Porte? What country had already formed an alliance with the Turks? What province of the Russian empire was invaded, and by whom? By what powers was Catherine threatened? After whose death, and in consequence of what circumstances, was she compelled to conclude a peace? With what territory was she now obliged to content herself?

(277.) By whom were the measures of improvement commenced by Peter I. fully carried out? Give an account of her reforms. From what country chiefly were colonists brought into Russia?

### § 41. *The Osmanic Empire.*

(278.) To what causes do you attribute the decay of the Osmanic empire? How was its utter ruin prevented?

### § 42. *Causes and immediate occasion of the French Revolution.*

(279.) In what reign was the enormous public debt contracted, and how was it augmented?

(280.) By what classes were the public burdens almost exclusively borne?

(281.) To what object were the endeavors of the Encyclopædists directed?

(282.) What do you mean by "lettres de cachet?"

(283.) What was the immediate occasion of the revolutionary outbreak? What notions had been acquired by the French soldiers during the American war? Who was first minister of finance at this time, and what plan did he propose? By whom was he succeeded, and what was the result of his policy? What body

was called together by Calonne, and what plan did he lay before them? Of what classes was this assembly chiefly composed? Through whose influence was this minister removed from office? By whom was he succeeded? What body did he call together, and what was the result? Under what circumstances was Brienne dismissed, and by whom was he succeeded? What body was now summoned to assemble at Versailles? What dispute arose at their first meeting? What extraordinary proceeding was adopted by the third estate? By whose advice? Of what great movement do you consider this the commencement? What plan was adopted by Bailly, in consequence of an attempt on the part of the king to prevent the meetings of this assembly?

### § 43. *The constituent National Assembly.*

(284.) By which of the estates was the separation still opposed? Were they joined by any other estate? What proclamation was issued by the king? To what subject was the attention of this assembly chiefly directed? What circumstances occasioned an insurrection on the 13th and 14th of July? By whom were the insurgents addressed? What were their first acts? What measures were then adopted by the government? By what concession on the part of Louis XVI. were the populace appeased? What course was adopted by some of the nobility at the commencement of the Revolution? By whom was an army assembled on the frontier? With what act did the national assembly commence their proceedings? What declaration followed? What further resolution did they pass?

(285.) By what circumstances were fresh discontents occasioned? What act of violence was committed on the 6th of October? By whose exertions were the king and queen rescued? To what place did the national assembly now adjourn its session?

(286.) What questions next occupied the attention of the assembly? Into what parties were the members divided? What was the result of their deliberations? On whom was the primary elective franchise conferred? To whom was it at first refused? By what name were these primary electors known, and whom did they elect? What number of representatives was returned to the national assembly? By whom were they elected? Did they act in any other capacity? From what body were the municipal authorities chosen? What measure of finance was adopted by the assembly? At whose suggestion? What attempt was made to hasten the sale of Church lands? Did this plan succeed? What acts were passed respecting the religious orders? What reform was effected in the administration of justice? What acts were passed of a still more republican character? What concessions was the king required to make? What oath did he take? What political societies were formed by the members of the national assembly? For what purpose did they meet? Which was the most important of these societies? From what circumstance did they

derive their name? What sort of influence did they exercise? What occurrence occasioned the resignation of Necker? What was the immediate consequence of this resignation? What intention was soon afterwards proclaimed by the republicans? After whose death?

(287.) What attempt was now made by the king? For what purpose? How was this attempt frustrated? What resolution was passed by the assembly, after the return of the king to Paris? By what party were the Republicans opposed on this occasion? With what act did the national assembly terminate its labors?

### § 44. *The Legislative Assembly.*

(288.) Of how many deputies did the new legislative assembly consist? Whence did the Feuillants derive their name? [See note.] Which was the strongest party in the assembly? Who composed the moderate party? Who were the Cordeliers, whence did they derive their name, and who were their leaders? By whom were some of the highest places in the courts of justice filled? What administration was at last formed by the king, and what measures was he compelled to adopt?

(269.) To what acts of the assembly did the king refuse his assent? What was the immediate consequence of this refusal? What occasioned the second attack on the Tuileries? To whom did Louis now intrust himself? What decrees were passed by the assembly? How did they treat the king himself? What misfortune befell Lafayette? By whom and under what circumstances were the Parisian populace persuaded to massacre the adherents of the old régime? After the dissolution of the legislative assembly, what was the form of government? Of how many deputies did this convention consist?

### § 45. *The National Convention.*

(290.) By what parties was the national convention distracted? By whom were the Jacobins headed? Which of these parties was the stronger? To what circumstances do you attribute their superiority? What change in the form of government was proclaimed by the convention in their first session? By what party was an attempt made to protect the king? On what charges was he arraigned, and what was the result of his trial? What appeal was rejected? When and where was the sentence of the court carried into execution?

(291.) What feeling was excited by this act of treason? Against what countries did the republic declare war? In what part of France did the people rise against the government? By what act of oppression had they been irritated?

(292.) Between what parties did a struggle now commence? Under what circumstances was a committee of public safety established? What order was issued by the assembly? By whom was it compelled to issue this order? Whither did the great body of

Girondists fly, and against what government did they organize an insurrection?

(293.) What plan was drawn up and circulated by the convention? With what preparations did the convention then occupy itself? What was the fate of Marat?

(294.) What proposal was made by Carnot at this time? How was this edict carried into effect? What cities surrendered to the republican forces? Where did Napoleon win his first laurels? What cruelties were practised towards the insurgents in La Vendée? What success attended the operations of the republican armies on the frontiers? What distinguished persons were put to death by the government? What became of the Girondists who escaped from Paris?

(295.) What measures were adopted in the departments? In what manner did the republican government endeavor to destroy all reminiscences of former times? What acts of sacrilege were committed? What plan of Robespierre's was successfully carried out? Who were guillotined for alleged treason against the Republic? To what important office was Robespierre raised? What were his apparent qualifications for this office? What law was next passed by the convention? What was the result of this iniquitous enactment? What was the fate of Robespierre?

(296.) What effect was produced by his death? In whose hands were the two committees at this time? What acts were passed? For what purpose was a commission appointed. and who was placed at its head? Where and how did Louis XVII. die? On whom did the Royalists confer the title of king after his death? Where was he resident at that time? Where and by whom was an army of emigrants almost annihilated? In what body was the executive power lodged by the new constitution? To whom was the legislative authority intrusted? What was the qualification for a seat in the council of ancients? What attempts were made by the Royalists, and how were they frustrated? By what general were their forces defeated? On what plan were the councils then formed?

### § 46. *The first coalition against France.*

(297.) Against whom and for what reasons was Louis XVI. compelled by his subjects to declare war? To whom was the conduct of this war confided by the emperor? Of what troops was the grand army entirely composed? By whom was it commanded? What was its line of march? On whom was the command in chief of the French army conferred? By what circumstances were his operations against the Prussians aided? What was the result? Whom did he next attack? Where was a battle fought, and with what result? What advantages were gained by the French in other parts of Europe?

(298.) Of what European powers did the grand coalition consist? By what power was it headed?

(299.) With what achievement did the Austrians open the cam-

paign of 1793? How was Dumouriez occupied at this time; and why did he quit Holland? In what battle was he defeated? Of what fortified town did the Prussians regain possession? What step was taken by Dumouriez in consequence of the refusal of his soldiers to follow him? What plan had he proposed to them? To what circumstances do you chiefly attribute the success of Jourdan? What victories did he gain? Did any thing remarkable occur during the battle of Fleurus? What battle was fought after the Austrians had re-crossed the Rhine? With what result? What country did Pichegru invade? By what party was he supported? and of what circumstance did he take advantage? What change was effected in the form of government? By what name was the new commonwealth distinguished?

(300.) Under what circumstances were the allies compelled to abandon all their conquests on the Upper and Middle Rhine? Between what powers was a separate peace concluded? On what terms? Did any other governments conclude a peace with the Republic? What concessions were made by the Spanish government? What Spanish statêsman took an active part in the negotiations? How was he rewarded? In what war were the French unsuccessful? Where and by the ships of what nation were they defeated? What colonies did they lose?

(301.) Why did the directory renew the war? What nation did they first attack? By whom were the three French armies respectively commanded; and what was the destination of each?

(302.) Into what country did two of the armies advance? By whom was the offensive now assumed? Where did he engage the French, and with what result? Against whom did the archduke now direct his march? How did Moreau avoid an engagement? What French generals crossed the Rhine in 1797? What intelligence checked their farther advance?

(303.) By what general was the French army in Italy commanded? Whom had he recently married? By what pass did Napoleon enter Italy? Where did he first defeat the Austrians? By what victories did he separate the Sardinian from the Austrian army? What concessions did he extort from the King of Sardinia?

(304.) Give the pedigree of the Bonaparte family.

(305.) What bridge did Napoleon storm, and what city did he enter? By what sacrifices did the Dukes of Modena and Parma purchase an armistice? How did Napoleon employ the interval which must elapse before he could procure a battering train for an attack on Mantua? What effect had this movement on the councils of the King of Naples? By what sacrifices did the Pope purchase the forbearance of the French? Of what city were the Austrians still in possession? What is its situation? By whom was the garrison commanded? How many attempts were made to raise the siege? What was the fate of the city at last? By whom was the first of these attempts made, why did he quit Mantua, and where was he defeated? By whom was the second attempt made? Where were they defeated? What other victories were gained by

the French? After what battle did the garrison of Mantua capitulate?

(306.) In consequence of what accusation was the Duke of Modena deprived of his duchy? Of what republic did it form a part? By what sacrifice was the Pope compelled to purchase peace after the fall of Mantua?

(307.) Into what countries did Napoleon then advance? With what power did he conclude an armistice? When and where was a peace afterwards concluded? What countries were given up to the French? Of what countries was the Cisalpine Republic composed? What territory did the emperor receive in return for these sacrifices? What provinces was he permitted to retain?

(308.) What islands were ceded to France? What compensation did the Duke of Modena receive for the loss of his duchy? For what purpose was a congress held at Rastadt? What name was given to Genoa and its territory? What was the condition of the French marine at this time?

### § 47. *Eastern Europe.*

(309.) What circumstances encouraged the Poles to rise against their Russian rulers? By what government were they encouraged? What were the most important articles of their new constitution? By whom and at whose instigation was a confederacy formed for the restoration of the ancient constitution? By what troops was Poland at the same time invaded? Who commanded the Polish army? What concessions were made by the king in consequence of these hostile demonstrations?

(310.) What was the avowed object of the King of Prussia in invading Poland? What was the purport of his proclamation? Between what powers, and with what motives, was a second partition of Poland arranged? What portion did each of those powers receive? Whom did the Poles choose to be their leader?

(311.) What measures were adopted by William II. on receiving intelligence of this outbreak? What city did he storm, and why did he abandon the siege of Warsaw? By what armies was Poland now invaded? By whom was an attempt made to prevent the junction of these armies? What became of Kosciusko? What city was stormed by Suwarrow? With the capitulation of what city did the struggle terminate? What became of King Stanislaus Poniatowski? Between what powers, and in what year, was a third partition of Poland arranged? What were now the boundaries of those countries?

(312.) In what wars did Frederick William II. take an active part? What loss did he sustain in the first of these wars, and what advantage did he gain in the second? What provinces were formed out of his newly-acquired territory? By what river were they separated from one another? Of what other

territories did Frederick become possessor? By whom was he succeeded? What was the policy of the new monarch?

(313.) By whom were Catherine II. and Gustavus III. succeeded?

### § 48. *The French Directory.*

(314.) In what condition did the five directors find the finances? How did they endeavor to meet this difficulty? Did this plan succeed?

(315.) What circumstances occasioned the formation of a royalist opposition? By whom was a party also formed in the directory itself? Which of the two parties triumphed? What became of Carnot and Barthélmy?

(316.) Why were the negotiations with England broken off? Who was appointed commander-in-chief of the "army of England?" How was Bonaparte occupied at this time? Had he any object in view beyond the conquest of Egypt? By whom was the Indian war renewed? In what year, and how did it terminate?

#### *Bonaparte's expedition against Egypt and Syria.*

(317.) What number of men had Bonaparte under his command? From what port did he sail? By what generals was he accompanied? By whom were they afterwards joined? Were any distinguished civilians attached to the army? By whom was the English fleet in the Mediterranean commanded at this time? What island did Bonaparte conquer in his voyage from Toulon to Egypt? At what Egyptian sea-port did he land? Who were the Mamelukes, where were they attacked by the French, and what was the result of the battle? In what direction did Dessaix advance? What disastrous intelligence now reached Napoleon? On what day was this battle fought? What was the immediate effect of this disaster? By whom were the French attacked at Cairo, and with what result? By what power was war declared against France in consequence of these proceedings? What country did Bonaparte invade? By whom was Acre defended? What was the result of his attempts on that city? How many times did he attack it? In consequence of what intelligence did he withdraw his army?

(318.) Where did the Turkish army land, and what was its fate? In what year did Bonaparte return to France? Whom did he leave in command of the army? What victory was gained by Kleber, and what was his fate?

(319.) What effect was produced by the violent proceedings of the directory? What pretext was afforded them for sending an army into the States of the Church? What form of government did they establish at Rome? What became of Pope Pius VI.? What measures were adopted for the destruction of the Swiss Confederation? Under what name was Switzerland incorporated into the French republic? What secret article was introduced

into the treaty of Campo Formio? With consent of what power? What was its effect?

(320.) In what condition did Bonaparte find the nation on his return from Egypt? What powers were intrusted to him? Who was appointed his coadjutor? What event furnished the councils with an excuse for withdrawing to St. Cloud? How many of the directors supported Bonaparte? On what condition? What became of the others? By whose exertions was Bonaparte enabled to dissolve the assembly of Five Hundred? What sort of a government was then established? What title was conferred on Bonaparte? For how many years was he appointed? Who were his colleagues? To what bodies were the consuls required to submit all projects of law?

### § 49. *War of the second coalition against France.*

(321.) What territories had the emperor ceded to France? In accordance with the terms of what treaty? What places were promised to him as a compensation? Who protested against this alienation of German territory? To what conditions were they forced to submit? Between what powers had a new coalition been formed? Who was grand-master of the Knights of Malta at this time? State the reasons which induced the Porte and Austria to become parties to this alliance. With what atrocious act was the peace of Rastadt terminated? Which of the German princes took part in the war? What was the policy of the northern sovereigns?

(322.) What plan of military operations was agreed on by the allies? By whom were these armies respectively commanded? For what purpose were they sent into those countries? How did the Neapolitans commence the war? By whom were they commanded? Was the attempt successful? What Italian sovereign fled on the approach of the French? In whose hands did he leave his capital? What new name was given to his dominions? Against whom did the directory then declare war? What were the destinations of their four armies, and by whom were they commanded? What success attended the operations of Massena in Switzerland? What generals were stationed at Naples and in Holland?

(323.) By whom was Scherer defeated? Whose arrival completed the discomfiture of the French? By what troops were Lombardy and Piedmont occupied? Between what parties, and with what result, was a battle fought on the banks of the Trebia? What were the immediate consequences of this victory? What French general was defeated by Suwarrow, and for what purpose did he cross the Alps? What portion of their Italian possessions remained in the hands of the French at the close of the year 1799? By whom was the French army commanded in the campaign of the following year? How long did this campaign last? By what passes did they cross the Alps? What city was entered by Bonaparte? Where did General Melas engage the French? By whom was the battle renewed? What was his fate? By what occurrence was the discomfiture of the Austrians completed? On what

conditions was Melas allowed to withdraw the remains of his army from the field? In what cities did Bonaparte now establish provisional governments? Whom did he nominate commander-in-chief of the army of Italy?

(324.) What success attended the operations of the Archduke Charles in Germany and Switzerland? By what pass did Suwarrow enter Switzerland? By what circumstance was he compelled to withdraw his troops into the country of the Grisons? Through what country did he return to Russia? What victories were gained by Moreau in the year 1800? How near to Vienna did he advance?

(325.) On what day, and where was peace concluded? Between what parties, and on what conditions? For what purpose was a deputation appointed, and what was the result of their labors? In what manner were the hereditary princes of the empire indemnified for their losses? What compensation did the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Duke of Modena receive? What countries were most favored in this division? For whom were new electorates founded? What was now the total number of electors? What princes had been deprived of the electoral dignity? What cities remained unmediatized?

(326.) What territories were added to Prussia? What did Bavaria receive? What territory did Hesse share with Nassau? What portion fell to the lot of Baden? To what circumstance was the grand duke indebted for this accession of territory? What compensation did Würtemberg receive for her losses in Alsace? What indemnification was received by Austria for her cession of the Breisgau? What sacrifice had been made by the Duke of Parma, and what compensation did he receive? By what sacrifice did Naples purchase peace? To what office in Italy was Bonaparte appointed? How many new cantons were added to those already existing in Switzerland? Which of the Swiss cantons was annexed to France? For what reason?

(327.) By what nation was the commerce of Holland crippled? By what parties was the country itself distracted? What effect was produced by the appearance of the Prince of Orange off the Helder at this crisis? To whose incapacity do you attribute the failure of the whole undertaking? By what conquest was the supremacy of England in the Mediterranean secured? In accordance with what capitulation was Egypt evacuated by the French? What refusal on the part of England produced a rupture with Russia? In conjunction with what powers did Russia revive the armed neutrality? How did England avenge herself? What occurrences afforded a favorable opportunity for the termination of hostilities? Who succeeded Paul on the Russian throne? In what month and year was peace concluded? Between what powers? What possessions were relinquished by England at the peace of Amiens? What compensation did she receive for this sacrifice? What government afterwards became a party to this treaty?

§ 50. *The consular government of Napoleon Bonaparte.*

(328.) To what objects did the first consul now direct his attention? What was his ultimate design? What proof have you of this? What conspiracy was discovered, and for what severe measure did the discovery afford a pretext? Into how many sections was the tribunate divided? By what act on the part of the French government were the emigrants enabled to return to France? What plan was adopted by Bonaparte for the establishment of the Roman Catholic worship? What improvement was effected in the education of the middle classes? What was the "Code Napoleon?" By what measure was public credit re-established? Describe the manner in which Bonaparte prepared the way for the establishment of absolute monarchy. To what office was Napoleon elected immediately after the conclusion of peace? In whom was absolute authority vested by the new constitution? In conjunction with what body? By what restrictions were the legislative corps and tribunate reduced to insignificance? What discovery furnished an excuse for still further encroachments? By what court were the conspirators tried? Why was this? How many of them were executed? What became of Pichegru and Moreau? On what charge was the Duke d'Enghien arrested? What was his fate? What title was conferred on Bonaparte previously to these trials? When and by whom was he anointed? In what manner was the constitution modified? What vestige of the representative system remained?

§ 51. *The third coalition against France.*

(329.) What circumstances produced a rupture between France and England in 1803? Which of these governments declared war? What British possession was immediately seized by Bonaparte? What do you mean by the continental system? What preparations were made at Boulogne?

(330.) In what manner did Pitt meet this danger? By what circumstance were the operations of this coalition facilitated? What form of government did Bonaparte substitute for the Italian republic? Where and in what year was he crowned? Who was nominated viceroy of Italy? What dignity was conferred on his brother-in-law, Bacciochi? What republic was incorporated with France? What measures were adopted by Bonaparte on the formation of this third coalition? What powers were parties to the coalition? By whom was Bonaparte joined?

(331.) What force was raised by Austria in 1805? By whom was the larger army commanded, and into what country did it march? Who commanded the smaller? What was its destination? Whom did Napoleon dispatch into Italy? In what country did he himself take the command of the army? Where did he concentrate his forces? By what general was he joined? What country was entered by the French, and what fortress did they blockade and take? Who commanded the garrison? What

country did Napoleon now enter? Of what city did Murat take possession? How were the Austrians employed in the mean time? On what day was the battle of Austerlitz fought? By what name is it known? Who were defeated in that battle? Between what parties was the peace of Presburg concluded? What sacrifices were made by the emperor? What dignities were conferred on the electors of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden? What territories were surrendered by Prussia, and what did she receive in exchange? What penalty was inflicted on the King of Naples? How had he displeased Napoleon? On whom was the kingdom of Naples conferred? To whom were the papal seignories of Benevento and Ponte-Corvo granted? What name was given to the Batavian republic, and on whom was the sovereignty conferred? To whom did Napoleon give Cleves, Berg, and Neufchatel? In what month and year did the dismemberment of the German empire take place? How many princes separated themselves from the empire? What confederacy did they form? Who declared himself its protector? What titles did these princes renounce? Where was the business of the confederacy to be transacted? Who was the president? To what did each of the confederates pledge himself? What title had Francis II. assumed in 1804? What imperial institutions were broken up when Francis ceased to be head of the German empire? What arbitrary policy was pursued by the confederation? By what troops were they supported? Who was punished with death for resistance to their tyranny?

(332.) By whom and where were the Spanish and French fleets destroyed? Who lost his life in the engagement? To what aggressive measures against England did Napoleon now direct his attention?

### § 52. *The fourth coalition against France.*

(333.) What hostile measures was Prussia compelled to adopt against England? What was the immediate result of this proceeding? What plan did Napoleon adopt in the hope of still further widening the breach? What measure was unanimously recommended by the Prussian generals? By what circumstance was Napoleon enabled to concentrate a force on the Main? What was the amount of that force? What royal personage fell in a skirmish near Saalfeld? Where did Napoleon engage the two grand divisions of the Prussian army? Who commanded the two divisions? By whom were the two divisions of the French army commanded? What was the event of both these battles? What became of the Duke of Brunswick? How was the Elector of Saxony rewarded for his adherence to the Rhenish confederacy? To whom were the Prussian fortresses surrendered? By whom were some of them bravely defended? What city did Napoleon enter in triumph? Into how many departments did he divide the conquered Prussian provinces? What decree did he publish, and what was its effect?

(334.) By whom were the French joined as they approached the Vistula? Whom did the Prussians join? In what war were the Russians involved at that time? Through whose influence?

Against what city did Ney's division march? What became of the rest of the French army? What intelligence induced Napoleon to break up his winter encampment at Warsaw? What Russian general did he engage, and where? Was the battle decisive? What cities capitulated during the armistice? By what victory was the war terminated? Where and between what parties was peace concluded? What reason did Napoleon assign for restoring to Prussia all her provinces on the right bank of the Elbe? What concessions were made by Prussia in return for this indulgence? In what year was the restoration of the Prussian territory carried into effect? What was now the extent of the Rhenish confederacy, and what territories did it comprehend? What countries were evacuated by Russia? What possessions were surrendered by Sweden? What agreement had been made between the two emperors at the peace of Tilsit? Why did the English government demand that the Danish fleet should be delivered up to England? What happened in consequence of the refusal of Denmark to comply with this demand? What was the consequence of this proceeding? From what power did Denmark obtain an army for the defence of her territory?

### § 53. *The war in Portugal and Spain.*

(335.) Why was Portugal occupied by a French army? By whom was it commanded? What title did he assume? In whose name did he proclaim himself regent? What had become of the Portuguese royal family? To what countries did Napoleon extend his continental system? For the subjugation of what country did he form a plan? Under what pretence did he cross the Pyrenees? With what force? Who was at that time King of Spain? Why had Charles IV. resigned his crown? What desire was expressed by the ex-king in consequence of the entry of the French into Madrid? Of what treacherous act was Napoleon guilty? Whom did he place on the throne of Spain? On whom was the kingdom of Naples conferred? For whom was the grand duchy of Berg destined? How did the Spaniards receive their new emperor? What attempt did Joseph make to conciliate his subjects? Whither did he retire?

(336.) What government sent an army into Portugal? By whom was it commanded? What success attended its operations? Who commanded the French army in Portugal, and what became of him? What disaster befell the French army in Spain? By whom was it commanded? Who had promised assistance to Napoleon? Where had the two sovereigns met? At the head of what force did Napoleon appear in Spain?

(337.) What city did Napoleon enter, and what changes did he effect in the constitution? By whom were the English compelled to evacuate Portugal? For what purpose did Napoleon return to France? By whom was the fortress of Saragossa defended? To whom did it surrender? Over whom and where did Sir Arthur

Wellesley obtain a brilliant victory? By what disastrous events was this victory neutralized?

(338.) How had the monks offended King Joseph, and in what manner were they punished? By whom were the French troops perpetually harassed? To what place had the Junta retired? What body did they assemble, and what sort of constitution did they draw up? Under what general did the French make repeated attempts to regain a footing in Portugal? Were they successful? What fortified city did they attack, and with what success? By whom was it protected? For what purpose did Napoleon withdraw his best soldiers from Spain in 1812? What effect had this on the Spanish population? Under whom did they take the field? What fortresses were stormed by Lord Wellington? Whose armies did he separate? Which of these generals did he defeat? Where was the battle fought? In what direction did Wellington retreat on the approach of the French? What general was recalled from Spain by Napoleon? In consquence of what disasters? What happened in consequence of the recall of Soult? In what year and by what battle was the fate of Spain decided? How did King Joseph escape being taken prisoner? By what battle was the war terminated? Was Napoleon still emperor? What became of Ferdinand VII.?

### § 54. *Suppression of the temporal authority of the Pope.*

(339.) What idea had Napoleon conceived soon after his coronation? What use did he intend to make of the Pope's influence? What demands did he make? On the refusal of the Pope to entertain his proposals, what further measures did Napoleon adopt? What decree was soon afterwards published? To what place was the Pope carried off? Whither was he then removed, and how long did he remain a prisoner there? To what place was he removed in 1812? For what purpose? When did he return to Rome?

### § 55. *War of Austria against Napoleon.*

(340.) What attempt was made by the Austrian government after the peace of Tilsit? What effect had this movement on the plans of Napoleon? What step was then taken by Austria? What was the purport of the proclamation issued by the emperor's brothers? What effect was produced by this appeal? By whom and in what engagements was the Archduke Charles defeated? Towards what country did he commence his retreat?

(341.) What city was a second time taken by the French? Where and by whom was Napoleon defeated? With whom did he then form a junction? Where did he defeat the Archduke Charles? Where did the two armies again meet? By whose arrival were hostilities suspended? What attempt was made by the English? Was it successful? By what peace was the Aus-

trian war terminated? What extent of territory did Austria lose by the peace of Vienna? What provinces was she compelled to relinquish? To what powers were they ceded? Out of what provinces was the new state of the seven Illyrian provinces formed? Who was appointed governor of these states? By whom was the Tyrolese insurrection headed? What was his fate? Into how many portions was the Tyrol now divided? To what kingdoms or provinces were they annexed? What indemnification did Bavaria receive for this sacrifice of territory? Out of what provinces was the new grand duchy of Frankfort formed, and to whom was it granted? With what stipulation? What attempt was made by Schill, and what was the result?

§ 56. *Napoleon at the summit of his power.*

(342.) Whom did Napoleon marry after his divorce from Josephine? What title was conferred on the empress's infant son? Why did Napoleon annex the whole of Holland to France? What further acts of aggression did he commit? How many departments did the French empire number at this time? What was its extent? What was now the policy of the imperial government? What was the condition of France at this time? What effect had the continental system on commerce? What encouragement did Napoleon afford to native industry? In what particular was the strictness of the continental system sometimes relaxed? What effect did these grievances produce on the feelings of the French people? Was discontent excited in any other quarters?

§ 57. *Napoleon's Russian campaign.*

(343.) What conviction was soon forced on Russia? What additional territory had she acquired by the peace of Bucharest? By what occurrence was the first coolness occasioned between Alexander and Napoleon? Why was this measure regarded with suspicion by Russia? Mention the other causes of offence. By whom and in what year was the Russian war commenced? What number of men did he bring into the field? What was the amount of the Russian force? Where did Napoleon first defeat the Russians? Where did he gain a second victory? On what day did he enter Moscow? What fearful calamity occurred soon after his arrival? By whom was it probably occasioned? How long did Napoleon remain at Moscow? On what day and with how many men did he commence his retreat? What was the state of the weather at this time? In what condition was the country through which the French army passed? By whom were they repeatedly attacked? By whom was the passage of the Beresina forced? Why did Napoleon abandon his army? What service had Ney rendered, and how was he rewarded? What was the first step towards the emancipation of Prussia? What was Napoleon's opinion of this proceeding?

§ 58. *The War of liberation.*

(344.) From what place did Frederick William III. of Prussia issue a manifesto? What was its purport? With what power did he now conclude an alliance? By what powers was he afterwards joined? What new military force did he organize in Prussia?

(345.) By whom was the Prussian grand army commanded? In what direction did it march? Of what force did it await the arrival? By whom was the allied army commanded? What were the numbers respectively of the two armies?

(346.) When did Napoleon re-appear in Germany? Towards what place did he advance? Where was he compelled to engage the enemy? Which party was victorious? How did Napoleon treat the King of Saxony? What was the result of the battles of Bautzen and Wurschen? In what direction did the allies now march? Why did Napoleon consent to an armistice? By whom had Hamburg been abandoned, and by whom was it retaken? How did he treat the inhabitants? What reason did he give for these acts of cruelty?

(347.) To what circumstances do you attribute the unsatisfactory termination of the congress of Prague? What was the amount of the subsidy granted to the allies? By what power was it granted? What force did they equip? How many divisions did they form? By what general was each of these armies commanded, and what was its destination? How many men did Napoleon bring into the field? When and where did Napoleon gain his last victory? What celebrated general was mortally wounded in this battle? By what untoward occurrences were the advantages gained by Napoleon almost neutralized? Where and by whom were Oudinot, Macdonald, Vandamme, and Ney defeated? What name did Blücher obtain in consequence of his victory at Wahlstatt? What honor was conferred on him? Why did Napoleon quit Dresden? Where was the "great battle of the nations" fought? How long did it continue? What troops went over to the allies towards the end of the battle? Who were engaged on the first day? Why was there no general engagement on the second day? What reinforcement joined the allied army? Under what circumstances was the battle renewed on the 18th of October? What important personage was slain in the battle? In what direction did the defeated army retreat? How many men crossed the Rhine? By whom were the French attacked during this retreat? What were the immediate consequences of this victory? With whom, and for what purpose, did Murat form an alliance? What country concluded a treaty of neutrality with Napoleon?

(348.) What measures were now adopted by Napoleon for the defence of his empire? By whom was it threatened? Why did he prorogue the legislative assembly? In what year did the allies enter France? Under what generals? Whom did Napoleon attack, and with what result? Was he able to prevent a

junction of the allied armies? In what direction did each of the two divisions of the allied army march? Where did Napoleon engage the grand army, and with what success? Where and with what result was a congress held? Where were the French defeated by Blücher? What desperate design did Napoleon conceive after the battle of Arcis-sur-Aube? What French marshals were defeated by the allies? What heights did they storm? On what day did the allies enter Paris? By whom were they headed? What declaration was now made by the senate? By whose advice?

(349.) On what day and where did Napoleon sign his abdication? What sovereignty was conferred on him by the allies? What territories were granted to his wife and her descendants?

(350.) What sort of constitution did Louis XVIII. establish on his return to Paris?

(351.) Where and for what purpose was a congress held? How long did it sit? By what sovereigns was it attended? By what intelligence were the negotiations brought to a conclusion? What resolutions were adopted with regard to the territory to be assigned to Austria, Russia, Prussia, and England? Of what new kingdom was the stattholder of Holland created king? What confederacy was substituted for the German empire? Of how many states did it consist? Where did the federal diet hold its session? For the settlement of what questions? What new grand duchies were created? What cities remained independent? What foreign sovereigns belonged to the German confederacy? What indemnification did Denmark receive for the cession of Norway? What attempt was made by the Norwegians? What advantage did they gain by this movement? How many new cantons did Switzerland obtain? What sovereigns were reinstated in the positions which they had respectively occupied before the war? What addition was made to the territories of the King of Sardinia? To whom was Lucca given? What duchies were settled on Maria Louisa? To whom was the reversion of those duchies secured? To what state were they to be eventually annexed?

### § 59. *Escape of Napoleon from Elba.—The hundred days.*

(352.) By what abuses had a spirit of disaffection been excited in France? By what intelligence was Napoleon encouraged to make a fresh attempt? Where did he land, and with how many men? By whom was he joined? On what day did he enter Paris? Whither had Louis XVIII. fled in the mean time?

(353.) From what city had Napoleon issued a proclamation? What was its purport? Why was not this arrangement in all respects satisfactory to the people? What steps were taken by the congress of Vienna in consequence of the return of Napoleon? What was the amount of force raised by the allies? How many men had Napoleon intended to bring into the field? Was he able to complete the number?

(354.) What proclamation was issued by Murat? How far did

he advance? By whom and where was he defeated? Whither did he fly? To whom did he leave his throne? What attempt did he make in the following year, and what was his fate?

(355.) Of what nations were the allied army composed? By whom were the two divisions commanded? When and with what result did Napoleon engage the Prussians? Who lost his life in the battle of Quatrebras? What attempt was now made by the Prussians? For what purpose was Grouchy's division detached from the main army? When and where did Napoleon attack Wellington? What was the event of this battle? By whom was the French army pursued? To what place did Napoleon then fly? With what intention? To whom did he surrender himself, and to what place was he conveyed? When and where did he die?

(356.) What contribution was levied by the allies immediately after their second entry into Paris? Of what treasures did they obtain the restoration? What demand was made by Prussia? By whom was this claim set aside? Who succeeded Talleyrand in the administration? On what terms was the peace of Paris concluded? What important fortresses were ceded by France to the Netherlands, Prussia, and Bavaria? To what power was the western part of Savoy given up? What indemnification was France required to pay for the expenses of the war? For how many years was she required to maintain an army on her frontiers? By whom was this army commanded? What became of the Bonaparte family? What league was then concluded between the two emperors and the King of Prussia? To what did they pledge themselves?

## § 60. *France.*

### A. *The Restoration under the Bourbons.*

(357.) What proclamation had Louis XVIII. issued previously to his return to Paris? Under whom was a liberal administration formed? By what party was it overthrown? Who headed that party? What persons were excluded from the amnesty?

(358.) What punishment was inflicted on Ney? What projects of law were carried through the new chamber? By what minister? What indulgence did he obtain from the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle? What return did Louis XVIII. make for these concessions? What disastrous occurrence furnished the ultra-royalists with an excuse for demanding the dismissal of the premier? What alteration did they effect in the law of election? Who was at the head of the new administration? What resolution was carried by them? By whom was this measure opposed? What attempt was now made by the ultra-royalists?

(359.) By what conduct on the part of the government was the indignation of the French people excited? What effect did this feeling produce on the elections? What course was Charles X. compelled to adopt? What was the fate of the next administra-

tion? Under whom was the next administration formed, and what was its policy? On what subject was an address presented to the king? In what manner did the king attempt to withdraw the attention of the people from domestic politics? Was this expedition successful? How did the people receive the news of the capture of Algiers? What fatal course was now adopted by the ministers? What was the result?

(360.) In favor of whom did Charles X. abdicate? Who was nominated regent of the kingdom? What dignity was afterwards conferred on him? Under whose command was the national guard placed? What alterations were made in the charter of Louis XVIII.?

### B. *Under the House of Orleans.*

(361.) What was the first care of Louis Philippe? How did he effect this object? Were his people also satisfied? With what parties were his ministers engaged in a perpetual contest? By whom was the "juste milieu" system of Guizot introduced? By whom was it resisted, and what was the consequence of this opposition?

(362.) In what part of France had the Carlists the greatest number of adherents? By whom were they encouraged? By what means did the republicans endeavor to overthrow the ministry? What attempts were made on the king's life? What prince of the Bonaparte family attempted to overthrow the government? What was the result of these attempts? What system did Louis Philippe adopt in order to preserve peace with foreign powers? On what occasions was he compelled to violate it?

(363.) What circumstance afforded Thiers an opportunity of attacking the foreign policy of the government? What was the result of this opposition? What great error was committed by the liberal administration? What was the policy of the Soult-Guizot ministry?

(364.) By whom were the colonists in the new colony of Algiers perpetually harassed? How long did the war last? On what terms was peace concluded? What circumstance compelled the French to accept these conditions? When and by whom was the war renewed? Where was the emir compelled to take refuge? In what year did he surrender himself a prisoner, and whither was he conveyed?

(365.) By what circumstance was the Sultan of Morocco involved in a war with France? What cities were bombarded by a French fleet? By whom was the fleet commanded? Who commanded the land army? On what conditions was peace concluded? Were they observed?

(366.) To what circumstances do you attribute the unpopularity of Louis Philippe? What proposal did he obstinately reject? What was the effect of this refusal?

(367.) By what occurrence were the eyes of the people completely opened? What proceeding on the part of the government

was the immediate cause of the revolution? By whom was the opposition headed? What was the result of his motion? Why did Louis Philippe dismiss the Guizot ministry? What happened on the evening of the 23d? How were the inhabitants of Paris employed during the whole of that night? What course was now adopted by the king? In whose favor did he abdicate?

(368.) What bold step was taken by the Duchess of Orleans? Was it successful? By whom were the deputies compelled to appoint a provisional government? What form of government did it proclaim? Subject to whose approbation?

### C. *Second French Republic.*

(369.) In what manner did the provisional government commence its proceedings? To whom was the elective franchise extended? When did the provisional government dissolve itself, and by what was it succeeded? Who were the five members who composed the executive commission? Who were the most formidable opponents of this commission? What had the revolutionists of February declared to be the duty of the state, with regard to the employment of the people, and what scheme was formed? What were the consequences of the failure of this scheme? Who was shot during the struggle which ensued? By whom were the malcontents defeated? To whom were the powers of the executive commission transferred, and what were his first acts?

(370.) What did the new *constitution* declare France to be? To whom was the legislative authority committed? Who were eligible as representatives? What exception was there to this rule? In whom was the *executive authority* vested? By whom, and for how long, was the president elected?

## §61. *Holland and Belgium.*

(371.) Of what provinces had the congress of Vienna settled, that the kingdom of the Netherlands should be formed? To whom was this kingdom given? How long did the union last? When did the Belgians break out into open insurrection? What demand did they make? What was the result of the granting of this demand? How far did this insurrection extend? What were the results of it? Of whom was the conference assembled in London composed? What did they decide with regard to the kingdom of the Netherlands?

(372.) What had the national congress assembled at Brussels proclaimed in the meanwhile? When did the King of Holland renew the war? What prevented him from carrying his plans into effect? What did the conference then propose? What were the consequences of the refusal of the King of Holland to comply with these conditions? When was the treaty of peace signed between the two nations?

(373.) What were the causes of the abdication of the king in

the Netherlands? In favor of whom did he abdicate, and to what place did he retire? What proclamation did the new king issue on his accession?

(374.) What plan of a constitution was presented by the government to the chambers in 1848?

(375.) What has been the condition of Belgium since the revolution of 1831? Did the French revolution of 1848 produce any effect on Belgium?

(376.) What is the character of the Belgian *constitution*? What are its chief articles?

### § 62. *Great Britain.*

(377.) In what year did George IV. begin his reign? Who was his prime minister? What were his most remarkable measures? In defiance of what acts did O'Connell threaten to take his seat in the house of commons?

(378.) In what year and by what administration was the Roman Catholic Emancipation carried?

(379.) By whom was George IV. succeeded? Who was at the head of the whig administration? What important act received the royal assent in this reign? By whose administration was the monopoly of the East India Company abolished?

(380.) Who succeeded William IV.? Whom did she marry? Why was Hanover separated from England? Who became King of Hanover?

(381.) What wars have been carried on by Great Britain in this reign? With what results?

### § 63. *Germany.*

#### A. *Germany, a confederacy of states.* (1815—1848.)

(382.) What differences of opinion arose during the session of the congress of Vienna, with regard to the future constitution of Germany? What reforms were effected in Prussia by Baron Von Stein and the Chancellor Hardenburg? What was the aim of the system pursued in Austria by Prince Metternich? Was this system adopted any where else? When and by whom was Kotzebue assassinated? What measures did Prince Metternich then adopt? For how long did the German nation enjoy tranquillity? What were the effects of the Paris revolution of July? What events occurred in Brunswick at this time? In what states were the sovereigns compelled to grant constitutions? What demands did the people of the constitutional states of the south of Germany make?

(383.) What was the conduct of the confederation after the fall of Warsaw?

(384.) On what ground did King Ernest Augustus repudiate the law of 1833, in Hanover?

(385.) Who succeeded the Emperor Francis I. in Austria? In what year did Frederick William IV. ascend the throne? What concessions did he make to the people?

(386.) What was the cause of the disturbances in Munich in 1848? What was the issue of the struggle?

B. *Germany, a federal state* (1848).

(387.) What were the effects of the intelligence of the third French revolution? What report occasioned fresh disturbances in Munich? What course was the king compelled to take? What was the first act of the new king? What demands did the Hungarian diet make? Through whose influence were they granted? What measures did the students of Vienna take to have their demands granted?

(388.) What results followed the progress of the emperor through the city? What was the conduct of the nobles of Hungary? What were the consequences of the government scheme for the formation of a single chamber? When did the emperor return to the capital? Who aided the Milanese in their attempts to throw off the Austrian yoke? What was the result of this insurrection?

(390.) What two nations formed the kingdom of Hungary? What was the cause of the rupture between the Magyars and Sclavonians? Why did Jellachich propose a union with Austria? Whom did the emperor nominate commander-in-chief in Hungary? What occasioned the second flight of the emperor from his capital? Who was Prince Windischgrätz? What was the fate of the insurgents? When did the emperor abdicate? In favor of whom did he abdicate? To what town was the place of meeting of the Hungarian diet changed?

(391.) What was the occupation of the Prussian government when the intelligence of the French revolution arrived? What were the effects of this intelligence? What course were the government compelled to pursue? What were the results of the refusal to withdraw the military from Berlin? Did the government at last comply with this demand?

(392.) When did the representative assembly open its session? What was the first act of this assembly? Why was the session removed to Brandenburg? What dispute arose between the representative body and the government? What was the result of this dispute?

(393.) Where was the general constituent assembly to be held? How was the number of the deputies to be arranged? From what states were the deputies to be sent?

(394.) When did the constituent assembly commence its sessions? What was the first resolution passed by the assembly? Who was elected imperial stattholder of Germany? Who directed the assembly? What was the occasion of the émeute of the 18th of September, in Frankfort? Who were murdered during this émeute?

§ 64. *Russia.*

(395.) What additions were made to the Russian empire during the reign of Alexander I.? What domestic improvements did this emperor effect? Where did death surprise the emperor? By

whom was he succeeded? Why did not his brother Constantine succeed him?

(396.) What conspiracy was formed early in this reign? What measures did Nicholas take to excite a feeling of nationality?

(397.) What was the occasion of the Russian-Persian war? What were the terms of the peace concluded between the two nations?

(398.) What was the occasion of the Russian-Turkish war? What success had Wittgenstein against the Turks? What advantages did Generals Diebitsch and Paskewitsch gain?

(399.) What were the conditions of the peace of Adrianople? What was the occasion of the Russian-Polish war?

(400.) By whom was the insurrection in Poland commenced? What were the results of this insurrection?

(401.) What victory did Diebitsch gain over Skrzynecki? What occasioned the death of Diebitsch? Who succeeded him in the command of the army? What was the fate of the Polish insurgents? What became of Poland after this insurrection? What was the result of the conspiracy of 1846?

(402.) What were the results of the war carried on with the mountaineers of Caucasus?

### § 65. *The Osmanic empire and Greece.*

(403.) What were the causes of the decline of the Osmanic empire during the reign of Mahomet II.?

(404.) Who was Alexander Ypsilanti? What proclamation did he issue? What was the cause of the failure of the Greek cause? What was the fate of Ypsilanti?

(405.) What other insurrections were suppressed at the same time? What measures induced the Greeks to rise again? Where did they raise the standard of revolt? Who joined the Greek patriots? By whom was the Porte assisted? Who commanded the garrison of Missolonghi? What was the fate of this garrison? By whose intervention was tranquillity re-established? Who was elected to the office of president of Greece? What was the cause of the battle of Navarino? Which party was victorious in this battle? What success had Maison over Ibrahim Pacha? By whom was *Greece* declared to be *an independent kingdom?* What was the northern boundary of this kingdom? To whom was the crown first offered? What was the fate of Capo d'Istrias? Who was nominated *hereditary king of Greece?* When was he nominated? When did the Porte recognize him? Where did he fix his residence? When did the king himself assume the reins of government? What were the new causes of discontent in Greece? What occasioned the dissolution of the Janissaries?

(406.) Who was Mohammed Ali? Who aided the sultan against him? On what terms was peace concluded between the sultan and Mohammed Ali? What were the results of the second attempt of the sultan to subjugate Mohammed Ali?

(407.) What grant did Mohammed Ali obtain from Abdul

Meschid? What reforms were effected by the liberal party in the reign of Abdul Meschid? Who headed the liberal party?

§ 66. *Italy.*

(408.) For what benefits was Italy indebted to France? When was a constitution granted to Sicily? At whose instance was it granted? Who were the Carbonari? What did they attempt to re-establish? Did the king grant their demands? What resolution did the *congress of sovereigns* pass? At whose motion was it passed? What event followed the return of the king from Laibach?

(409.) When was the absolute system broken up in Italy? When was Pope Pius IX. elected? What course did he pursue?

(410.) When was a constitutional government established at Naples? Where was this example followed? What success had the Sicilians in their attempts to emancipate the island? What events passed at this time in Parma and Modena? What was the result of the revolt of Lombardy? Where, and by whom was Charles Albert defeated? What was the cause of the departure of the Pope from the papal states?

§ 67. *Switzerland.*

(411.) In whose hands had the government been since 1814? What were the consequences of the French revolution of July? In what cantons had democratic constitutions always existed? What were the consequences of the civil war in the canton of Basle? What were the the causes of the disturbances in Aargau and Lucerne? What success attended the arms of the insurgents in their attacks on Lucerne? What was the Sonderbund? What was its fate?

(412.) When was the federal constitution revised? How many chambers were established by the diet? Of how many members does the assembly consist? In whom is the supreme executive authority vested? Was this constitution accepted by all the cantons? Where are the sessions of the federal assembly held?

§ 68. *Spain.*

(414.) What were the first acts of Ferdinand VII. after his return from France? Where did the revolution of 1820 commence? Between what parties was Spain distracted at this time? What resolution did the Congress of Sovereigns pass at Verona? To whom did they intrust the execution of their design? Who commanded the French army? What were the results of this expedition? What was the fate of the liberal leaders? When was the *Salic law* introduced? Who persuaded Ferdinand to abrogate this law? What feelings did this measure excite? When did Ferdinand die? By whom was he succeeded? What course had Don Carlos in the meanwhile pursued? What were the consequences of these divisions? By whom were the Christinos commanded, and who assisted them? By whom were the Carlists commanded? Which party was victorious? On what conditions did the Basque-

Navarrese recognize Isabella as their queen? When and in favor of whom did Don Carlos abdicate? What concessions was the queen-regent compelled to make? When was she compelled to resign the regency? Who succeeded her in the regency? When was the queen declared to be of age? When and whom did she marry? To whom did the queen give her sister?

### § 69. *Portugal.*

(415.) Where had John VI. remained since the expulsion of the French from Portugal? To whom had he left the government of his European dominions? When was he forced to return to Lisbon? What oath was he compelled to take? Did he keep this oath? Which of his sons had he left in Brazil? What was the conduct of this son? When did John VI. die? By whom was he succeeded? What line of policy did he pursue? In favor of whom did he resign the crown of Portugal?

(416.) To whom was Donna Maria betrothed? What was the conduct of Don Miguel? By whom and when was he proclaimed *absolute* king? How did he lose the crown? In favor of whom did Don Pedro resign the crown of Brazil? For how long did the constitution of 1822 remain in force after its re-establishment in 1833? What reason compelled the government to restore the charter of 1826? Through whose interference was the war of 1846–47 terminated? What was the cause of this war?

### § 70. *Sweden.*

(417.) In whose reign was Finland given up to Russia? By what means was Gustavus IV. compelled to abdicate the throne? In whose favor did he abdicate? What new constitution was published in this reign? What act was passed after the death of the crown prince? What connection was there between Napoleon and Bernadotte?

### *The House of Bernadotte since* 1818.

(418.) What name did Bernadotte assume on his accession? Did he justify the choice of the nation? When did he die, and by whom was he succeeded?

### § 71. *Denmark.*

(419.) How had Denmark been indemnified for the loss of Norway? For how long a period did this country enjoy tranquillity? Into how many provinces was it divided? What proposal was made by the Danish party in the reign of Christian VIII.? What proposal did the German provinces make on the other hand? Which of the two propositions did the king favor? What events succeeded the accession of Frederick VII.? What engagement did Prussia make? At whose suggestion was it made? Why did Denmark blockade the ports of Northern Germany? For how long was an armistice at length arranged? With whose consent was a provisional government established?

### § 72. *The American States.*

(420.) 1. What is the number of the United States of North America? Name the extent of the United States. Through how many degrees of latitude and longitude do they range? What is the extent of sea-coast?

(421.) Give the names of the states in their order.

(422.) Which are the territories?

(423.) How have the United States increased? When was Louisiana purchased? When was Florida ceded to the United States? What is the rank of the United States as a maritime power? What progress has been made in railways, steamboats, &c.? In diffusion of knowledge? In general prosperity? Where is slavery retained? What advantages resulted from the Oregon treaty? What from the war with Mexico?

(424.) What is said of American history?

(425.) Who was the first president? What difficult questions stood in his way from the first? [Financial ones particularly; to various sectional interests, &c.] Who was the Secretary of the Treasury? What plan did he propose? What effect followed? What caused difficulties with the French? Who defeated the Indians? What important treaty was concluded, and by whom? What have you to say of Washington's Farewell Address? What was the state of the country on Washington's retirement?

(426.) Who was the second president? When was he inaugurated? What was the state of the question with France? What measures did Congress adopt? What caused a change in the French policy? When did Washington die? What was the effect on the people? State in few words his character. What have you to say of party during this administration? What measures excited opposition?

(427.) Who was the next president? When did he enter upon office? Who was vice-president? What tract of country was purchased? From whom? What did the navy do, and where? Give an account of the conspiracy. Why was Burr not convicted? What was the general conviction? What measures of European policy led to serious injury and difficulty? What was the *Berlin decree? Orders in Council? Milan decree?* Give the dates. What happened in the case of the Chesapeake? What was done in 1808? What the next year?

(428.) Who was the fourth president? When inaugurated? State of the question with France and England? How many vessels lost between 1803 and 1811? Which country resumed intercourse first? At what date? What resulted in case of England? When was war declared? Was the war popular? What party opposed it? How long did the war last? Operations on land? On sea? Date of treaty of peace? When was the Bank of the United States chartered? For how long?

(429.) Name the fifth president. When inaugurated? State of the country? What war broke out in 1818? Name the general. What country ceded to the United States? By whom?

When? Missouri question, what? Who visited the United States in 1824? How many candidates for president? Was either elected?

(430.) Who was the sixth president? Date of his entrance upon office? What was the controversy with Georgia? How settled? Who died on 4th July, 1826? What was the state of party at this date? Was Mr. Adams re-elected?

(431.) Name the seventh president? Date? What policy did the new president introduce? What did he do with respect to the United States Bank? How did he regard internal improvements? What happened in South Carolina? How did the executive act? What did he do in respect to the "deposits?" What was the Senate's action? State why trouble occurred with France. How was the matter settled?

(432.) Who was the eighth president? Date of his inauguration? What was his policy? State of the country? In the city of New-York how many failures occurred? To what amount? What did the banks do? What did the extra session do? What bill passed, and when? What great excitement arose? Was the president re-elected?

(433.) Name the ninth president. Date? How long did he live? Who succeeded him?

(434.) What was remarkable in this administration? What bill was repealed? What treaty formed? When and where? What occurred in Rhode Island? What was done in regard to Texas?

(435.) Name the eleventh president. Treaty made with whom? War with whom? Treaty signed, where and when? California, when taken possession of? By whom? When was peace concluded? Amount of emigration?

(436.) Who was the twelfth president? Date? Died when? Who succeeded him? Who is president now (1851)?

(437.) 2. What other name has Hayti? When did this island become an empire? When did it become a republic? When was the Spanish portion of the island incorporated into the republic?

(438.) Of what provinces did Spanish America consist? What did the people of Spanish America expect after their refusal to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte as king of Spain? What measures did they adopt when their expectations were disappointed? What was the war of *Liberation?* Which was the successful party? (a) How did this war terminate? What state was Paraguay? By whom and when was it founded? When did it declare itself independent? Whom did it choose as dictator? (b) When was the republic of La Plata established? (c) When was the republic of Chili established? (d) When was the republic of Colombia established? By the union of what provinces was it formed? When was Quito annexed to it? Into what states was it divided in 1831? (e) When was the republic of Peru established? By whose aid was it liberated from the Spaniards? What division took place in 1825? (f) To whom had Uruguay formerly belonged? By whom was it taken possession of in 1817? Through whose intervention

and when was it declared independent? What was the occasion of the war between La Plata and Uruguay? (g) What induced the Mexicans to make fresh attempts after their first insurrectionary movements had been suppressed by the Spaniards? To whom was the throne of Mexico first offered? Who was proclaimed emperor on the refusal of this prince? How long did he reign? Why was he compelled to abdicate the throne? What was the result of a succession of party struggles? When did Texas separate itself from Mexico? To what state, and when was it subsequently annexed?

(439.) Why had friendly relations been for some time suspended between Mexico and the United States of North America? What was the cause of open hostilities? When was peace concluded? On what terms was this peace concluded? (h) What are the five provinces of central America? When did they declare themselves independent? What republic did they establish? When did Guatimala separate itself from the union?

(440.) Which is the only monarchy of the New World? Why and when did Don Pedro I. abdicate? In whose favor did he abdicate?

### § 73. I. *Religion, arts, sciences, &c., during the Third Period.*

#### I. Religion.

(441.) Into how many dioceses has England divided her colonial possessions?

(442.) By what Society is the Church in those dioceses mainly supported?

(443.) Over what countries are the Roman Catholic missions spread? Under whose direction are they? Where are the Protestant missions established?

(444.) By what means was the Roman Catholic ecclesiastical constitution re-established? By whom had the order of Jesuits been re-established? When was this order expelled from Russia? What union was effected in Prussia in 1817? What worship was suppressed by force in Russia?

#### II. *Constitutional history of the Period.*

(445.) What different constitutions have been established in the different countries of Europe during this period? What were the most remarkable effects of the French Revolution?

#### III. *Science, literature and art.*

(446.) What was the effect of Kant's Critique on the Intellect?

(447.) b. Who distinguished themselves in Philology during this period? By whom was the study of general grammar pursued? By whom were the studies of Oriental, Sanscrit, and Ancient German literature pursued?

(448.) By whom were excellent German translations of the best foreign writers made?

(449.) By whom were historical investigations pursued in Germany, France, England, Sweden, Poland, and Russia?

(450.) d. What progress was made in Geography during this period?

(451.) Name the most important travels of this period? By whom were expeditions made to the North Pole?

(452.) e. In what manner was natural science promoted by these travels? Who were the most distinguished naturalists of modern times? What were the most remarkable discoveries in medicine? By whom was galvano-plastic invented?

(453.) f. Who were the greatest poets of this period in Germany? Mention some of their different styles? Who were the most celebrated writers of romances and novels?

(454.) Who were the most celebrated French poets of this period? Who are the most celebrated writers of romance?

(455.) Where did Lord Byron write? Who were the most celebrated English writers of this period? Who are the most renowned of the modern Italian poets? What writers distinguished themselves in Russia and Sweden? Who are the most celebrated North American romance writers?

(456.) g. What country can boast the most distinguished modern orators? Who are the most celebrated French orators?

(457.) h. How has the study of the antique been promoted? Who have been the most successful imitators of classical models of sculpture?

(458.) What schools of painting have we in Germany? Who were at the head of these schools? What has been the great aim of the French painters, Horace Vernet, P. Delaroche, &c.? Who are the most celebrated painters in Belgium? How has the study of the fine arts been improved? By whom was lithography invented? Who was the inventor of steel engraving? Where was the daguerreotype invented?

(459.) i. Which country has produced the most illustrious masters in music? Who were the most celebrated German composers? Who are the most celebrated French composers? How and where have Rossini and Bellini distinguished themselves? By what means has the musical science been advanced in Europe?

(460.) To whom was the colonial trade of the French, Dutch, and Spaniards transferred during the war? How did England indemnify herself for the loss of her trade with the European continent? How was manufacturing industry encouraged in France, the Netherlands, Germany, and Russia? How were the interests of commerce promoted? What commercial principle has been adopted by England? Mention an instance of this.

THE END.

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